

An Analytical Study of Research  
from 1904 to 1954 on Leadership Displayed  
by American Children and Youth

By  
CORNELIA M. LANCASTER

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### Significance of Leadership

The phenomenon of leadership has seemingly challenged researchers as much as the mysteries of personality. It has been found that a socialized individual always lives with reference to a group, and is, therefore, constantly in the process of group integration and co-ordination. It is in group interaction that the phenomenon of leadership exists. Leadership is inherent in group organizations and must be studied in relationship to the social situation in which it arises.<sup>1</sup> The interrelationship among needs, beliefs, and actions of social organizations is intimate and complicated; therefore, the concept of leadership is not a simple one.

While the emphasis on leadership in the past few decades has been gaining widespread attention, it does not mean that leadership is something new. From primitive times men have felt the need of capable leaders. Plato<sup>2</sup> in his Republic made an early attempt to study the problem of leadership through his scheme for selecting and training men to meet the demands of that period of time. To the present time the

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<sup>1</sup>R. E. Park and E. W. Burgess, Introduction to the Science of Sociology (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1921), pp. 849-50.

<sup>2</sup>Plato, The Republic of Plato (London: J. M. Dent & Sons, Ltd.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Company, Inc., 1935).



idea of selection and training for leadership prevails, but with quite a different emphasis, because, historically, leadership has not always meant the same thing. In the past, a position of eminence has been enough to endow the holder with the status of "leader." More recently the trends of thinking have related leadership directly to the organized group and its goals.<sup>1</sup>

The problems of group relationship appear to be the most complex and most baffling of all social psychological problems, and variations in what is and what is not to be called "leadership" have resulted in a great number of studies that have set out to examine this phenomenon. The literature is full of various concepts of leadership, statistical compilations measuring leadership traits, and voluminous attempts to classify this function of human interaction. These studies have yielded such diversity of opinion as to what is meant by "leadership" that at a glance "leadership" might seem to be a patchwork quilt of incompatible designs. In spite of the fact that these studies provide comparatively few results of theoretical or practical value, it is recognized that "leadership is based on a perceptible differentiation of power to initiate activity within a group and also that it involved a position of high status within some hierarchical structure."<sup>2</sup> Tead<sup>3</sup> states that leadership is the activity of influencing people to cooperate toward some goal which

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<sup>1</sup>Ralph M. Stogdill, "Leadership, Membership and Organization," Psychological Bulletin, XLVII (January, 1950), 1-14.

<sup>2</sup>Eugene L. Hartley and Ruth E. Hartley, Fundamentals of Social Psychology (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1952), p. 603.

<sup>3</sup>Ordway Tead, The Art of Leadership (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1935), p. 20.



they come to find desirable. Situational factors, group goals, and abilities within the group seem to determine the type of leadership behavior displayed.

This basis for leadership gives confidence for further explorations into the leadership behavior of children. This study is developed within the conceptual framework of assumptions now generally accepted by educators, social psychologists, and sociologists. It is assumed that individuals can be educated for leadership. Since some aspects of behavior are learned, and since leadership is defined as embodying certain kinds of behavior, this belief is supported. A philosophical assumption which gives direction for an educational program for leaders places confidence in the democratic processes which can produce leaders who will meet the needs of our democratic society. As indicated previously, the functioning of leadership is inherent in all group organizations; therefore, leadership takes on certain sociological aspects in relationship to social structure. Another assumption on which this study is based is that in order to provide adequate leadership training it is necessary for teachers and administrators to understand the underlying concepts and principles of leadership behavior, the factors affecting leadership behavior and the situational nature of leadership.

#### Need for the Study

Scientific thinking tells us that the effective method of solving a problem is first to look at the facts concerning the background or foundation of the situation. Thus it is with the problem of proposing effective leadership training programs. One must first find out what



has been done, and how effective the results have been before any intelligent planning can take place. It is from this frame of reference that the following reviews of leadership are deemed significant.

It appears that the first review of leadership literature was a summary of studies by Krueger<sup>1</sup> describing the efforts that have been made to study leadership in some scientific manner. A number of studies which deal specifically with the characteristics of leaders in face-to-face type situations have been given in this review. These studies are all very interesting and suggestive, but no one of them has any final statement to offer concerning leadership. The summary was almost void of studies on leadership in children.

Closely related to the above study is a more comprehensive review of leadership literature by Smith and Krueger.<sup>2</sup> This review embraces the leadership literature up to 1933 and endeavors to present a general picture of leadership in face-to-face situations with special treatment of types and traits of leaders, techniques used by leaders, theories of leadership, and leadership training. However, in this review there were found less than ten studies on leadership in children.

Jenkins<sup>3</sup> primary interest in preparing his review was to provide a summary of techniques and results which would be of value to psychologists

<sup>1</sup>Levi M. Krueger, "A Summary of Studies on Leadership," Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, IX No. I (1932), 13-24.

<sup>2</sup>H. L. Smith and L. M. Krueger, "A Brief Summary of Literature on Leadership," Bulletin of School of Education, Indiana University, IX, No. 4 (1933), 1-80.

<sup>3</sup>W. O. Jenkins, "A Review of Leadership Studies with Particular Reference to Military Problems," Psychological Bulletin, XLIV (1945), 54-79.



dealing with problems of selecting leaders particularly in the military field. Even with emphasis on the military angle, he presented a small section on the techniques which have been employed in the studies of leadership among children. The studies he reviewed in this age level were few in number because his objective was to illustrate three major techniques for identifying leaders, namely, questionnaire, tests and nomination for leadership.

In 1948 Stogdill<sup>1</sup> presented a review which was concerned only with those studies in which some attempt had been made to determine the traits and characteristics of leaders. In many of the studies surveyed leadership was not defined, while in some the methods used in the investigation appeared to have little relationship to the problem stated. In this review, however, are listed a greater number of leadership studies on children than in any other review.

The most recent review of leadership literature was contributed by Myers.<sup>2</sup> His review is extensive in its scope with its several hundred studies drawn from areas in education, psychology, sociology, and embracing industry, union labor and the armed forces. Myers' study is based on the assumption "that leadership research findings are the most valid evidence for determining the theory and practice of leadership education." Pertinent to the present investigation is one of the questions Myers endeavored to answer, "What implications may the research

<sup>1</sup>Ralph M. Stogdill, "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature," Journal of Psychology, XXV (1948), 35-71.

<sup>2</sup>Robert B. Myers, "The Development and Implications of A Concept of Leadership for Leadership Education" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Department of Education, University of Florida, 1954).



findings concerning the nature of leadership have for leadership education of school personnel?" The research findings of this study relative to leadership education of school personnel seem to bring into focus the need of further investigation into the experimental work done in leadership of children.

The impetus for leadership training comes from many sources; ours is an "organization-rich" society. Problems of leadership training are constantly arising in government. The need for general leadership training has been pointed out by many writers. Gavitt,<sup>1</sup> knowing that exact sciences are fundamental to success in most phases of industry, stresses knowledge and training for leadership in this area. In the area of political science, Follett<sup>2</sup> has pointed out that a democracy is the most favored type of government for setting up a system of leadership training which would tend to produce the kind of leaders who could lead their people in the achievement of better government.

In like manner, educators are voicing opinions as to the needs for leadership training in our schools today. While each may stress particular techniques and methodologies of adaptation, all seem to be in agreement on two aspects: first, that training for leadership should receive definite emphasis in our educational system; and second, that the production of leadership in a democracy depends upon our educational facilities. In the last quarter of a century many attempts have been

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<sup>1</sup>Henry L. Gavitt, "The Importance of Leadership," The Engineering Magazine, LI (April, 1916), 17-21.

<sup>2</sup>Mary P. Follett, The New State, Group Organization and Solution of Popular Government (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1918), p. 373.



made to adapt school procedures to the variations in individual ability and interest, and much hope has been placed in these educational procedures.<sup>1</sup>

Early training for leadership begins with the proper school environment. Dexter<sup>2</sup> points out that too frequently the school and especially the teacher become institutions of authority and in the presence of this authority the child develops a feeling of inferiority. By helping the child to feel that he is a part of this authority, a positive contribution to the early training for leadership can be made. As early as 1925 an awareness of the value of student government as an instrument in leadership training became evident.<sup>3</sup> Participation in school government tends to give pupils an insight into, and an appreciation of, the school problems. It gives them a chance to learn how to lead by actually leading. LaVoy<sup>4</sup> suggests that leadership training would be greatly facilitated if school administrators would regard school life as a segment of real life rather than a preparation for adult life. He further stresses the fact that responsibility should be given so that pupils might experience satisfaction in performing the activities actually demanded by the situation. Other lines of thinking have emphasized good

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<sup>1</sup>G. W. Ebey, Adaptability among the Elementary Schools of an American City (New York: Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940), pp. 26-27.

<sup>2</sup>Elizabeth Dexter, "Treatment of the Child through the School Environment," Mental Hygiene, XII (April, 1928), 358-365.

<sup>3</sup>B. A. Mayberry, "Training for Leadership by Student Government," Journal of National Educational Association, XIV (June, 1925), 186.

<sup>4</sup>Kenneth R. LaVoy, "Leaders - Born or Made," School and Society, XXVIII (December, 1928), 683-684.



teacher-pupil relationship as conducive to bringing out student leadership potentials.<sup>1</sup>

The shrinking of our world has ushered in one of the greatest eras of mankind. We no longer can live in isolation or in a state of unconcern about the processes taking place in other cultures and societies. Sherif emphasizes this point by stating:

In this general world setting, no human grouping can function as a closed system today; no human grouping, no matter how weak or powerful, has an independent existence today. This state of affairs is ever bringing all social units into closer and closer functional relationship. Increasing interdependence is the tendency both within nations and between nations.<sup>2</sup>

This great age of competition has brought with it a wholesale demonstration of apprehensions and fears which in turn have created so many situations of conflict and misunderstandings that techniques and ways of resolving these difficulties have become a major problem. Sherif further maintains:

In many quarters of the world today (both academic and more practical) there is rapidly increasing concern over vital and frequently grim problems of intergroup relationships. The concern is an inevitable product of this wide spread situation.<sup>3</sup>

The demand for effective leadership is neither new nor peculiar to these times although a combination of forces have tended to emphasize our current needs for continuing constructive leadership if America is

<sup>1</sup>F. B. Riggs, "Leadership," Education, XLVIII (October, 1927), 115-122.

<sup>2</sup>Muzafer Sherif and Carolyn W. Sherif, Groups in Harmony and Tension (New York: Harper Brothers Publishers, 1953), p. 1.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 2.



to hold its place in the affairs of the world. Since the educational program in our democracy has the longest arms for reaching into every individual's life in an effort to train and guide, it is fitting that we study this program with the ultimate view of improving the leadership for our country and for the world in general.

#### Statement of Problem

The problem for this study, therefore, is to analyze and synthesize research studies on the leadership in children and youth from the pre-school age level up to and including the high school age level for the last fifty years (1904-1954). Implications will be drawn from the findings relative to the development of leadership in children and youth.

#### Delimitations of Study

The areas from which the research literature of leadership in children and youth is drawn are limited to education, psychology, and sociology.

In the main, the survey has been limited to leadership studies made in the American culture. However, a few selected foreign studies have been presented for comparative and supportive data.

#### Criteria for Selection of Research

The studies selected must meet the generally accepted standards of scientific research in that they are systematic or accurate in the manner of social science.



The studies must give evidence that they constitute an investigation of leadership in children and youth. This criterion is met through the use of the word leadership in the title and/or in the context of the study. Many studies in participation, introversion, sociability, and ascendancy may be closely allied to leadership but the relationship must be so stated as being a part of the study.

#### Procedure and Method of Analyzing Data

The procedures used in this study comprised the following steps: a preliminary survey of the leadership literature on children and youth; an analysis and synthesis of the research data; the identification of trends and generalizations supported by the research. An investigation of additional literature formed a basis for conclusions and implications resulting from the study.

Primary sources--that is, the reports of original studies rather than comments or evaluations of them--have been used in all cases except certain selected foreign studies which have been derived from competent abstracts and used only as comparative and/or supportive data.

#### Presentation of Studies

In the presentation of the reviews of the literature on leadership in children, the reviews have of necessity been held to a minimum. However, the descriptions have endeavored to follow certain patterns in which significant information has been given. In the main, each review has briefly presented data on the following: the investigator; the time and situational nature of the study; the methodologies used in the



investigation; the population, sampling or social composition of the group; the treatment of the data; and the findings which are pertinent to the present study on leadership in children and youth. Further descriptive passages may be found in subsequent chapters as they are woven into the analysis and synthesis of the data of all studies.

A minor consideration, but one worth noting, is the order used in presenting the reviews of leadership literature. Generally, these reviews have been presented in the following order: nursery or pre-school age level, elementary age level, junior high age level, and high school age level. Placement of those studies with overlappings or extended age ranges has been governed by the emphasized age level in the particular study and by the types of schools investigated. For example, some elementary studies include up to the eighth grade level and some junior high studies have reached down into the sixth grade level. Some studies on camping situations where the range of age is wide have arbitrarily been placed where the age emphasis seemed to fall.

Reviews of studies at the pre-school and elementary levels are presented in Chapter II, while the reviews at the junior high and senior high levels are placed in Chapter III. Following the reviews of the studies is a chapter containing the analysis and synthesis of the data relative to the distribution of the studies, methodologies used, traits and characteristics of leaders, and the situational and environmental aspects of leadership. Chapter V is concerned with trends, generalizations, and implications for educational programs. The final chapter presents the summary, conclusions, and problems for future research.



## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RESEARCH AT THE PRE-SCHOOL AND ELEMENTARY LEVEL

A fact that social interactions of early childhood have proved significant problems for investigators cannot be doubted when one examines the literature relating to them. The early emphasis, as disclosed by a survey of the American literature, focused attention generally on the various aspects of social behavior in young children with a chief stress on the discovery of specific behavior responses relative to age, sex, and mental ability, and, to a very small extent, the situational accompaniments of the behavior under consideration. This does not preclude the fact that there was great value in studying the structure of these social behavior patterns, for these many approaches to the understanding of social behavior serve as directive instruments for investigators into the many variables through which leadership seems to operate. Thus we find that with the changing concept of leadership from mere headship or office holding--a status usually identified with adulthood--to the phenomenon of group interaction, investigators are extending their search for answers concerning leadership problems into lower age levels.

#### Reviews of Studies on Pre-School Children

At the pre-school level one finds very few investigations directly focused on leadership behavior as such; however, the results from many



studies dealing with specific aspects of social behavior have been stated in terms of tendencies and characteristics of the phenomenon known as "leadership".

An intimate picture of leadership in the making is given by Wooley,<sup>1</sup> in a report of a case investigation at the Merrill-Palmer School in Detroit. The case report is based on the observations and test reports of one child during her stay at the school for the period January 1922, to March, 1923. However, with the vacation periods and week-end holidays, the period of actual contact amounted to about 186 days. The child, Agnes, entered the school when she was three years and two months old and remained until she was four and a half years old.

Complete and detailed records were kept as to the subject's physical status, her intellectual growth and her achievements as far as the skills and abilities acquired. The school gave evidence of conducting a well organized and individualized training program in a healthful social-emotional environment.

Records disclosed that in spite of the subject's egoism and desire to dominate and boss others, leadership potentials were easily identifiable through such displayed qualities as initiative, keen insight, understanding, intelligence, ability to organize, plan and execute, an alert interest in command of language, and ability to interpret the spoken word. Her social nature and her preference for people rather than for materials were indicative of more extroverted interests. On the other hand, this social nature in the group took the extreme form of bossiness and domination.

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<sup>1</sup>Helen T. Wooley, "Agnes, A Dominant Personality in Making," Pedagogical Seminary, XXXII (1925), 569-598.



The outstanding characteristic of domination and wanting to manage everything became modified under the influence of the school program which aimed to train her to subordinate her own desires and recognize the rights of others without destroying or discouraging her valuable executive talent which was recognized by the entire staff. This newly learned skill of playing more cooperatively in a group was short lived and the stronger and older behavior pattern of dominance persisted once more when summer brought the influence of a home environment lacking in the type of support and training needed in this particular case. Upon re-entering the school the desire to dominate and the ability to manage affairs were even more striking than the year before. This required more care and emphasis on the type of experience which would bring into the foreground the cooperative ability overshadowed by the unbridled and uncontrolled dominant behavior pattern.

In summarizing, this report brought out three facts which are of interest to the present study: (1) that leadership potential can be identified as early as three years of age, (2) there is a strong tendency for older and stronger behavior patterns to persist, (3) that effective leadership is a matter of the right training and experience.

An early attempt to investigate the aspects of child behavior which functions in the formation of a social group is found in a preliminary report on a study of a pre-school "gang" by Beaver.<sup>1</sup> While the primary emphasis at the beginning of the investigation was not directly on

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<sup>1</sup>Alma Perry Beaver, "A Preliminary Report on A Study of A Pre-school "Gang", Chapter VI, 99-117, Some New Techniques for Studying Social Behavior, Child Development Monograph, N.I. (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929).



the phenomenon known as "leadership", it so happened that the data collected by daily observations seemed to polarize around leadership behavior.

A well defined nursery group which seemed relatively stable and constant was selected for study. The group consisted of three boys whose ages ranged from three years and one month to three years and six months. The boys were selected because they were always together. Moreover, it seemed possible that this group might be a nucleus for a much larger group for the games they invented and the phrases which they used were being constantly incorporated into the play of the other nursery children.

For two months a daily record was kept of these three boys, their interplay with one another and the interrelationships with other children. Such a mass of descriptive data obviously could not be analyzed statistically, but it did reveal significant facts about the tendencies of leadership behavior in the three year old. Some of these were: the early age at which group formations might begin, common goals and interests of leader and follower, and the acceptance or rejection of group members. The traits of leadership displayed were initiative, ability to plan and carry plans to completion, originality, and creativeness. The leader tends to be larger than the followers.

In investigating the interrelationships in the behavior of nursery children, Goodenough<sup>1</sup> developed a method whereby direct observation of specific modes of behavior might be reduced to quantative expressions

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<sup>1</sup>Florence L. Goodenough, "Interrelation in the Behavior of Young Children," Child Development, I (1930), 29-48.



and recorded on a graduated scale. The second step in her investigation led into intercorrelations of these behavioral traits with each other and with such additional measures as might be available through other sources. During free play hours, thirty-three nursery school children were observed by a sampling method wherein twenty-five one-minute observations of each subject were obtained by each observer. The number of observations for each child totaled one hundred.

Two observers were used in all situations except those of observing "laughter" and "compliance"; these had three and four observers, respectively. The traits selected for observation were "physical activity," "talkativeness," "laughter," "compliance," and "social traits" which embraced "participation" and "leadership." These categories were built up in such a way as to form graded steps from a low to a high degree of the trait in question. Each observation was taken on a different day and no two persons observed a child at the same time, thus all measurements were taken independently of each other. Statistical procedures were used in computing the scores for each child. Additional data for correlation were obtained on physical beauty, attractiveness of personality, introversion and extroversion, chronological age, mental age, intelligence quotient, weight, height, occupational status of father and other familial aspects. Intercorrelations among social, mental, and physical traits were obtained. Resulting positive correlations with leadership were found in many of the selected traits. These results will be analyzed in another section of this study. The short samples of observation as used in this study were shown to be a useful means of studying spontaneous behavior of young children. The optimum length of time



for the single observations varied from a single glance for certain simple overt modes of behavior to a longer period for more complex forms, such as leadership, which might require accurate classifications of single events.

Parten<sup>1</sup> studied the phenomenon of leadership in the play situation of the pre-school child. In approaching the problem of leadership two assumptions were made:

First, that leadership is not a simple trait possessed to a maximum degree or not at all, but that it is present in varying quantities and that the degree of leadership of any child can be observed and measured during his spontaneous activities; and second, that leadership is a function of the personnel of the group and of its activities, as well as of each individual child.<sup>2</sup>

The purposes of the study were to "devise a method for observing, to measure by use of this method, and to analyze the data for factors encouraging or discouraging the development of leadership."<sup>3</sup>

Sixty or more minute samples of behavior were obtained on thirty-four children through observation during the morning free play period. The order of observing each child for a minute interval was suitably rotated from day to day so that each child was observed an equal number of times in the early, the middle, and the late part of the hour. The experiment was carried on for a period of five months. Classifications

<sup>1</sup>Mildred B. Parten, "Leadership among Pre-School Children," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, XXVII (1933), 432-440.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 430.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 430.



of the child's behavior were: following another's direction, directing and following, reciprocally directing and sharing with another child, directing the group. The composite leadership scores were computed by assigning arbitrary weights to each of the categories. A validation of the leadership scores was made against teacher rating scores. Results of this study gave evidence that the observation method of free play behavior can be used to measure leadership at the pre-school level, and that sixty one-minute samples of behavior furnish reliable measures of leadership when appropriate weights are assigned to the various categories of leadership. Data also yielded evidence that leaders excel non-leaders somewhat in age, height, and intelligence.

Perhaps the most outstanding contributions to the understanding of child behavior have been made by Buhler.<sup>1</sup> From her own investigations and from the investigations of others, she has reviewed some of the significant findings relative to the leadership behavior in children. From her extensive works with very young children she reveals evidences of leadership in the first year of life. The features of these earliest leadership tendencies are that the child in no way loses his balance in the presence of the other infant whom he consoles when weeping, and, secondly, that he leads the play in initiating and demonstrating certain gestures or activities. The author observed that at the middle of the second year of life, for the first time, three children began to join in a group, but the group of two was preferred up to three years of age.

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<sup>1</sup>Charlotte Buhler, "Social Behavior of Children," Chapter 12, *Handbook of Child Psychology* (ed. Carl Murchison, Worcester, Massachusetts: Clark University Press, 1933).



Only when the groups are larger than two are both sexes mixed. The fact that the group increases in number with age shows the progress of social organization. From early childhood on leadership originates in the group. The leader among the younger children, however, does not play the essential role which is his among the adolescents. Buhler concludes that leadership is an aspect of social behavior which can be observed in different situations from early childhood on through adolescence into adult life.

Another variation of the technique of time sampling through observation in play situations is presented by Hanfmann<sup>1</sup> in his investigation of the interrelationship of dominance within a kindergarten group of ten five-year old boys. The method of comparison by pairs--every child being paired with every other child in the group--resulted in nine different observations ranging from fifteen to thirty minutes. Two children were taken into the playroom at a time and allowed free play with colored blocks while two observers recorded all overt and verbal responses and made estimates as to which child was the more dominated. Dominance was defined as a control of his own play and that of his companions. A rank order of dominance on each child was obtained on the basis of the number of partners a child dominated. Among the findings there appeared a linear rank order of dominance among the lower half of ranks while in the upper ranks there appeared four distinct and different patterns and methods of dominance: "the destructive leader," "ganster

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<sup>1</sup>E. Hanfmann, "Social Structure of A Group of Kindergarten Children," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, V (October, 1935), 407-410.



leader," "objective leader," and "social leader." Of great interest among the findings is the fact that young children show discriminatory abilities among the types of leadership through an expressed preference for the "social leader" who bases his demands upon the requirements of the play and takes into account the attitude of his companions while displaying skill and flexibility in resolving differences.

Anderson<sup>1</sup> approached the study of leadership through an investigation of dominative and integrative behavior in children of pre-school age. The sampling of one hundred twenty-eight pre-school children was divided into three groups: sixty-three children from superior environmental influences and who were enrolled in a nursery school; thirty-four orphanage children, also in a nursery school; and thirty-one orphanage children not enrolled in a nursery school used as a control group. Four periods of observations ranging in time from five days to a month were made with the observers using scoring techniques and measures which had been validated in a previous study.<sup>2</sup> The categories with their various descriptive items were an adaptation of those used by Jack<sup>3</sup> in her attempt to measure ascendancy in the pre-school child.

The children were taken in pairs to the playroom in which there was a sand table and a few selected toys arranged in the same order for

<sup>1</sup>Harold H. Anderson, "Domination and Integration in the Social Behavior of Young Children in An Experimental Play Situation," Genetic Psychology Monograph, XIX (1937), 341-408.

<sup>2</sup>Harold H. Anderson, "An Experimental Study of Dominative and Integrative Behavior in Children of Pre-school Age," Journal of Social Psychology, VIII (1937), 335-345.

<sup>3</sup>Lois M. Jack, "An Experimental Study of Ascendent Behavior in Pre-School Children," University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, IX, (1934).



each observation period. Each child was paired at random with five others of his own group for the various observations. The resulting scores were totaled in order to obtain the child's rating on dominative and integrative behavior. Teacher ratings of dominative and integrative behavior for each child were made independently. A correlation of the teacher ratings with each child's measure of the dominative and integrative scores was obtained. The correlation results of .72 and .49, respectively, indicate that teachers are more able to judge dominative behavior than integrative behavior. In summarizing the results of the study, Anderson states:

The tendency of the mental age to correlate positively with integrative scores and negatively with dominative scores is in a way a validation of the fundamental assumption of the study: that high integration scores and low dominative scores are measures of social maturity and criteria of growth.<sup>1</sup>

Chittendon,<sup>2</sup> through an experimental study in measuring and modifying assertive behavior in young children, found that certain patterns of behavior, with some variations, fall in line with several of Hanfmann's<sup>3</sup> classifications of leadership: the "gang leader," the "objective leader," and the "destructive leader." Since her study was concerned with measuring assertive behavior and then modifying it, she faced the problem of selecting only those subjects for the training period who reacted to their environmental influences with a high degree of dominance. In developing

<sup>1</sup>Harold H. Anderson, Genetic Psychology Monograph, XIX, No. 3 (1937), 393.

<sup>2</sup>Gertrude E. Chittendon, "An Experimental Study in Measuring and Modifying Assertive Behavior in Young Children," Monograph in Society for Research in Child Development, III, No. 1 (1942).

<sup>3</sup>Hanfmann, op. cit., p. 408.



this measure for assertiveness or dominance, results from teacher ratings and observations were combined. The teacher ratings consisted of a five point rating scale on such types of social behavior as initiating social contacts, response to others' initiating social contacts, cooperative contacts, and withdrawing responses. The observer's score was obtained from six five-minute observations of the subjects in an experimental play situation. The five-minute periods were broken up into fifteen-second intervals with no child being observed more than once a day or more than once during the five-minute interval of the day. The observer's score on each category of behavior--dominance, cooperation, and non-assertion--was made up of the total number of times an item was checked during the thirty minutes of observation. The validity of this technique as a measuring instrument for the selection of subjects rating high in dominance was established.

In testing the main hypothesis which involved the modifying of assertive behavior, that is in helping a dominant child to a better understanding of social situations, thereby increasing his cooperative ability, an extensive training program was established for the seventy-one pre-school subjects who had been selected by the measure of assertiveness developed earlier in the experiment. The training program consisted of eleven fifteen-minute play periods during which the child witnessed short plays in which dolls participated in social situations similar to those in which the pre-school children frequently experienced difficulty.

By methods of analysis and comparisons of scores, before and after the training period, and within the limits of this investigation, it was found that the dominative behavior of a group of highly dominative children



of pre-school age had decreased, and that trends toward an increased cooperative behavior in these same children were evidenced.

### Reviews of Studies on Elementary School Children

Experimentation at the elementary level begins to solve problems of a more specific nature relative to the functioning of leadership. This may be due, in part, to the fact that as an individual becomes more aware of those around him his social milieu expands, thereby giving more frequent opportunities for the exercise of leadership behavior patterns. School age groups, also, lend themselves to a variety of experimental techniques.

One of the pioneer studies of leadership in children was made by L. M. Terman<sup>1</sup> in 1904. Although this experimental study is in part a repetition of some of the work done by Binet, its focus is on the psychology and pedagogy of leadership.

The general aim of the study sought "to discover those pupils who might be termed leaders of their followers and to ascertain the qualities whereby they held the ascendancy."<sup>2</sup>

This study on one hundred children took place in the public schools of Bloomington, Indiana. The grade distribution included 2nd, 4th, 6th and the 8th for the white children and 5th through 8th for the Negro children. Boys and girls were equated as to the number selected at each grade level.

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<sup>1</sup>L. M. Terman, "A Preliminary Study in the Psychology and Pedagogy of Leadership," Pedagogical Seminary, II (1904), 413-451.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 427.



The method used in the first part of the experiment was observation and recording of responses to card series. The children were in groups of five; later the groups were reduced to four each. Two series of pictures were shown to the pupils and questions asked about them. The replies were recorded in the order given, with the spontaneity and suggestibility of the children noted. Re-groupings for the second series of questions were made, placing one pupil who had shown himself a leader and one non-leader in each newly formed group. The second part of the experiment consisted of teacher opinion on twenty-two questions about the pupils. Intelligence, congeniality, liveliness and goodness were terms used by teachers to describe the leaders.

Leadership found during the earlier years seems to be of a less permanent nature. In general, the first few years of school relationships tend to be of a personal rather than of a group kind. This study revealed the significance of situational factors in leadership, in that it showed leaders in one situation were non-leaders when grouped with other children in new situations.

In seeking an answer as to why certain boys are found in one gang and not in another, Warner<sup>1</sup> has contributed significant data relative to leadership and the mental level of boys' gangs. Various groups of boys who have come in contact with the law were used for this investigation. Data were derived from social workers' reports, psychological records, school reports, court records and other reports filed by the Children's Service Bureau of Youngstown, Ohio. There were thirteen groups and seven

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<sup>1</sup>M. L. Warner, "Influence on Mental Level in the Formation of Boy Gangs," Journal of Applied Psychology, VII (1923), 224-236.



pairs and sixty-six different individual cases connected in some way with gangs. Approximate range of age was from eight to fifteen years.

Statistical comparisons of chronological age, mental age, and intelligence quotient of the individuals revealed that the mental age is the greatest factor in the selection of their companions and in holding them together; evidence is also given that within the gang the boys with the lower mental age will always be led by those of a higher mentality. Lack of initiative, lack of persistence, and personality deviation were characteristics of the non-leaders.

Through an extensive study of gifted children, Hollingsworth<sup>1</sup> reveals interesting data relative to the part the intellect plays in qualifying an individual for leadership. Although the section in Gifted Children devoted to leadership is brief, it is highly significant.

The knowledge set forth in this volume is a result of scientific studies by private foundations established to promote human welfare. Sources of data for this study on gifted children are such monumental works as Dr. Terman's in California, Dr. Whipple's investigation in Illinois, and surveys conducted in Manhattan Public Schools under the guidance of Teachers College.

Dr. Hollingsworth has drawn valuable and useful information from all available studies on gifted children, the first being made in 1928. The literature dealing with the gifted child until about this date has been chiefly legendary. Hollingsworth took the position that the ability to attract and persuade people and to organize them qualifies one for

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<sup>1</sup>Leta S. Hollingsworth, Gifted Children (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1926), pp. 131-35.



leadership. Her problem involved determining what part the intellect plays in leadership. Significant conclusions are: (1) the intelligence of the leader is related in a fairly predictable manner, other traits being favorable, to the intelligence of the led; (2) the leader is likely to be more intelligent, but not too much more than the average of the group led; (3) among gifted children who are the youngest in the class, physical size tends to reduce the correlation between intelligence and leadership.

In 1927 Thrasher<sup>1</sup> completed a seven-year exploratory survey on the sociology of the gang as a type of human group. This extensive investigation covers a study of 1,313 boy gangs, with an age range of nine through eighteen, living in the area of Chicago. The general design of the study was to reveal behavior trends in gang groups, and to present a general picture of life in an area little understood by the average citizen.

The study is primarily concerned with the natural history of a gang, the organization and control of leadership in the gang, and the gang problem. Data were collected and prepared through the cooperation of many individuals and through many social and legal agencies. Techniques used in collecting data were: observations, interviews, data from manuscripts, case studies, records and documents of legal and social agencies. While great effort was made to render the collected materials and data accurately, the findings and formulation presented in the study must be regarded as tentative hypotheses rather than as scientific generalizations.

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<sup>1</sup>Frederic M. Thrasher, The Gang: A Study of 1,313 Gangs in Chicago. (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1927).



Some of the outstanding traits of the natural leaders of a gang as found by Thrasher were bravery, physical and athletic prowess, quickness, and firmness of decision. Data support the fact that the natural leader may not be elected to an office, but the gang forms and the leader emerges as a result of interaction; that in some cases leadership is actually diffused among a number of strong "personalities" who share the honors and responsibilities; that in some cases there may be a rotation of leadership as activities requiring different abilities are undertaken. The natural leader of a gang exercises what appears to be absolute sway, but he must in every sense accommodate himself to the wishes of the rest of the gang. In summarizing, Thrasher states:

The leader of the gang is what he is because in one way or another he is what the boys want. The function of leadership is an inevitable growth out of the conflicts and other activities of the gang. The natural leader is the boy who comes nearest fitting the requirements of this function.<sup>1</sup>

In 1928 and 1929 the need for more factual aid regarding the characteristic behavior of children in order to plan more effective educational programs was emphasized by an extensive survey conducted by the Society for Scientific Study of Character<sup>2</sup> in the elementary schools of Detroit. A population of 5,226 children with an age range of five through seventeen years was used in collecting data on how children choose friends and leaders.

The study was based on the assumption that such a study as friend-leader-choosing would uncover those human values recognized and accredited

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 357.

<sup>2</sup>Detroit Teachers Study, How Children Choose Friends, First Annual Report Society for Scientific Study of Character. (Detroit: Detroit Teachers College, 1928-29).



by the children in their choices; that it would yield some quantitative measures of the children said to possess the qualities which are valued by them in the choice of friends and leaders; and that it would show the proportion of children unadjusted to their fellows, and the nature or location of that which hindered or prevented adjustment.

Data were collected by one hundred members of the Society, most of whom were teachers and principals in the Detroit public schools. Each child was asked to list on separate pieces of paper the name of the child he considered his best friend and the name of the child he would like most to have as a leader. Along with each preferred name were written comments as to the reason for such choices. Younger children's choices were collected through interviews by the teacher. The data from written papers and interviews were compiled as to age and sex, and were then classified according to seven general classes: physical--"because he is strong"; mental--"good in lessons"; emotional--"quiet, not silly"; social--"same class, church or group"; achievement--"good marks"; ideal--"good sport"; and personal--"my chum."

Results showed a distribution of from two to five children chosen with conspicuous frequency in each grade group. There were indications that 50 per cent to 75 per cent of any age group select their friends on a basis of social and ideal values, whereas the choice of leaders seems to be based on achievement values first with ideal, emotional, and mental values following in order. Boys tended to select boys and girls, girls. There seemed to be very little variation in reasons for choices according to the composite age groups. However, more marked differences appear when the years in which traits are most frequently cited are compared.



For example, girls and boys show no variation in the age of preference for physical and emotional traits, but the age of preference for ideal traits appears three years earlier for the girls.

Hsia<sup>1</sup> like others has "beaten a pathway" into the leadership area through a study of the relationships of sociability as judged by teachers and pupils, on the one hand, and such factors as intelligence, physical, emotional and social status, on the other. The study is limited to children of the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth grades. Preliminary to the part of the study dealing with relationships, the author constructed a Sociability Test. The main part of the study consisted of gathering data by use of this test and various other testing devices. Correlations between the Sociability Test and the selected factors were obtained. Results of the investigation which seem of value to the present study indicate that teachers can rate their own pupils on many aspects of social behavior with a considerable degree of accuracy; that teacher ratings, pupil choices and voting situations show reasonable agreement in judging status relationships; that, in general, boys and girls of this age level do not differ appreciably in their opinions on the traits and qualities necessary for certain social relationships; that sex attraction at this age level does not affect decisions even when free choice is given. This suggests that most likely boys and girls of this age level form their own circles and stick to their own sex in most of their activities.

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<sup>1</sup>J. C. Hsia, Sociability of Elementary Children, Teachers College Contribution to Education (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928), pp. 1-64.



Levi<sup>1</sup> conducted a study to determine the transfer of leadership from the elementary to the senior high school and from the junior high to the senior high school. Her study was primarily concerned with the relationship of leadership in the extra-curricular activities to age, to scholarship, and to other miscellaneous activities. Further, the transfer of leadership in extra-curricular activities from one school to another was investigated.

Through records, interviews, and visits to the schools objective data were obtained on 230 school leaders in thirteen elementary and ten junior high schools. These data included the kinds of extra-curricular activities engaged in, ages of student leaders, school marks, membership in outside organizations, kinds of private lessons, and kind and amount of work for which the leader received pay.

Two hundred and ten of these student leaders were then located and followed into nine senior high schools. Through the use of cumulative records and interviews the study was continued. Interviews with the principals determined the quality and frequency of each student's leadership in extra-curricular activities. Supportive data were collected through ratings made on point systems of awards used in many of the schools on outside activities and scholarship.

General conclusions of this study found the carry-over of leadership in school activities from the junior high to senior high to be three times the carry-over from elementary to senior high, and pictures the

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<sup>1</sup>Isabelle J. Levi, "Student Leadership in Elementary and Junior High Schools and Its Transfer into Senior High Schools," Journal of Educational Research, XXII (1930), 135-39.



elementary and junior high leader to be of average age for the grade, with a tendency for the scholarship of the leaders to increase as the weight of activities increase. Further conclusions show a minus relationship between school activities and the age of the elementary leader; very little relationship between school achievement and private lessons and between school achievement and paid work; and a close relationship between the school achievement of leaders and his membership in outside organizations.

Through an extensive experiment of perseverance, Pinard<sup>1</sup> contributes some significant findings on leadership in children. The subjects selected for investigation were "difficult" children in whom defects in traits of character were quite marked. Five hundred inmates of an institution ranging in ages from eight to fifteen years were considered desirable for the experiment.

Certain standardized tests for measuring perseveration were administered to these children and scores were obtained. Each score was then correlated with a staff ranking of each child on six character traits. Results showed that those children in the group designated as "extreme perseverator" were leaders in mischief, and they were almost always in conflict with adult authority; the children in the group of "moderate perseverator" were thought to be more reliable and better leaders by the staff ratings.

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<sup>1</sup>J. W. Pinard, "Tests of Perseveration," British Journal of Psychology, XXXII (1932), 5-19.



In making an extensive study of leaders and leadership in boys' camps, Partridge<sup>1</sup> found it necessary to gather two sets of data, one designated as the Camp Study, the other as the Troop Study. While some of the most significant findings are expressed in terms of comparison between these two groups, each study has merit within itself. In both studies the age range of boys was from twelve to seventeen years. The Camp Study involved one hundred forty-three boy campers, whereas the Troop Study included two hundred cases in six different groups of Boy Scouts in and around New York City. Growing out of the needs found in the Camp Study was the development of a technique for identifying leaders. It was a scheme called the "five-man-to-man" rating in which each boy rated others of his group on five traits: leadership ability, athletic ability, intelligence, dependability, and appearance. This method of identification was used in the Troop Study in establishing each boy's leadership rank in his group. Additional data gathered from other sources included age, score on an Army Alpha Test, height, weight, Scout Rank, and time of tenure. Analysis of these data reveals a very definite relationship between leadership ability and such factors as age, intelligence, and skill in performing particular activities. Further evidence pointed to the fact that the longer the group remained together the greater the tendency for the most intelligent individuals to gravitate to positions of leadership.

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<sup>1</sup>E. DeAlton Partridge, Leadership Among Adolescent Boys, Teachers College Contribution to Education, No. 608 (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934).



Pigors<sup>1</sup> has contributed a most interesting and informative comparison in his book, Leadership or Domination. Sources of data for the work were drawn from personal observation by the author and from the findings of numerous other investigations in social behavior. In the main, this volume seems to show that although leadership and domination are both social processes, they are very different in the ways they function as social controls. The author defines leadership as a "process of mutual stimulation which, by the successful interplay of relevant individual differences, controls human energy in the pursuit of a common cause," and domination as "a process of social control in which accepted superiors assume a position of command and demand obedience from those who acknowledge themselves as inferior in the social scale."

Of special interest to the present study is the chapter on leadership and domination in the life of a child. Resourcefulness was one difference found between dominance and leadership. Pigors states that while the child leader attracts followers because of his achievements and personal attributes, the child dominator, having no real inner power, copies external aspects of authority which usually take on a "bossy" air. The leader is resourceful, independent, enthusiastic, and cooperative. Boys and girls both reject the tyrant and bluffer, and will not tolerate the spirit of domination in their chief.

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<sup>1</sup>Paul Pigors, Leadership or Domination (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935), p. 354.



Newstetter, Feldstein and Newcomb<sup>1</sup> using a sociological approach to the study of leadership have contributed appreciably to the understanding of group work and its problems through the development of four methods or techniques for measuring group phenomena. The experiment which covered the summers of 1930 through 1934 is a part of a larger work started by the Wawokiye Camp Research project in 1926.

This experiment had its setting in camp life, and covered a period of eight camp sessions of four to five weeks duration in which thirty boys were in each camp session. In half of the periods the boys were of junior high school age, ten to thirteen years, while the campers for the other periods were of an average of fourteen years. In addition to the director, the camp was staffed with twelve persons, four of whom gave their full attention to research aspects. They were assisted by all the other members.

The main problem was to test various techniques for validity and use in the study of groups. Among the techniques devised and tested for validity were: (1) The Personal Preference Technique which consisted of a series of short questions or scheduled interviews dealing with experiences, opinions, and attitudes; (2) ratings on group acceptance by six counsellors at four-week intervals; (3) objective observation of group activities; and (4) a Cordiality Scale for measuring aspects of interaction. The reliability established for the first three techniques was .95, .75, and .84 respectively, but the fourth test for cordiality failed to distinguish one individual from another in any reliable fashion. From

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<sup>1</sup>Wilber Newstetter, Marc J. Feldstein, and Theodore M. Newcomb, Group Adjustment: A Study in Experimental Sociology, (Cleveland, Ohio: School of Applied Social Sciences, Western Reserve University, 1938).



the results, the author concludes in respect to the cordiality measure that, perhaps, the way to study social adjustment of an individual is not to study his behavior, but to study the behavior of others towards him.

The analysis of the factors involved in the testing of several techniques revealed correlations between group status and chronological age, mental age and intelligence to be .45, .45, and .17, respectively. It appears that in the long run those campers with higher chronological and mental ages tended to have a higher group status within their group than the younger members of the group, but this tendency manifested itself rather moderately. No great difference in the age groups was found in respect to stability of group status.

One of the most complete investigations of the adolescent personality in terms of leadership ability is a contribution by Tryon.<sup>1</sup> This research covers a period of three years (1933-1936) and represents one panel of data from a larger study, The Growth Study of Adolescents, which was conducted at the University of California Institute of Child Welfare in Oakland, California.

The purpose of the study was to discover those qualities or aspects of personality which were considered desirable by adolescent boys and girls. Further, the changes in evaluation of identified qualities which were made by boys and girls after a three-year interval were examined.

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<sup>1</sup>Caroline M. Tryon, "Evaluations of Adolescent Personality by Adolescents," Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, IV, No. 4 (Washington, D. C.: Society for Research in Child Development, 1939).



Twelve year old boys and girls from the high sixth and low seventh grade levels of the Oakland, California, schools were selected for the first testing (May, 1933). Then a second testing (December, 1935, and April, 1936) was made on these same boys and girls when they were in the ninth grade level. More than 75 per cent of a group of approximately 200 subjects were common to both testings.

The major source of information was from a "verbal portrait" matching technique (Guess Who) in which classmates' opinions of each other were given. The test contained a series of twenty word pictures describing the extremes of traits such as "restless - quiet." Another source of data was the anecdotal records and ratings made by adult observers. Correlation profile analysis and variant factor analysis were used to locate constellations of traits and to study the patterns of relationships between traits and constellation of traits.

The study revealed significant findings regarding age-sex differences in the attitudes of adolescent boys and girls relative to leadership prestige. The most noted change of values as evidenced through the "cluster" of traits was in the girls between the age level of twelve and the age level of fifteen. The changes for the boys seemed minor and in terms of slightly shifted emphasis. The outstanding difference between the younger boys and girls seemed to center around the cluster of traits which differentiated individuals in terms of aggressive and overt activity of any sort. This quality was more marked in boys than in girls as shown by the correlation between leadership and activity which was .72 and .53, respectively. While attributes frequently considered masculine such as skill in games, fearlessness, and self-assurance



continued to be important determinants of prestige for the older boys, the older girl leaders were characterized by such terms as enthusiastic, popular, self-confident, and having a general good humor.

The purpose of McGahan's<sup>1</sup> study was to ascertain the factors related to leadership ability of the elementary child and through special training to promote leadership growth in those children who did not receive recognition in their respective classes. The method used to obtain the pupil leadership rating was by pupil elections. Leadership scores were obtained on one hundred and seven children in the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh grades based on six elections held throughout the school year. Two groups were formed for the training program: grades four and six were selected for the control group, while grades five and seven made up the experimental group. The experimental group which was designated as "the stimulated" group was further divided into three divisions according to the subject's score of recognition in the October election: the upper third, the middle third, and the lower third. A program was inaugurated to stimulate the experimental group into a better understanding of leadership and to see if leadership status could be lifted. Factors studied in relationship to leadership were retardation, academic achievement, intelligence, personality deviations, and general personality traits.

The study revealed that knowledge of subject matter, intelligence, and a well-balanced personality strongly influenced status positions in the group, and that leadership status can be raised in children of low

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<sup>1</sup>F. E. McGahan, "Factors Associated with Leadership Ability," Texas Outlook, XXV (July, 1941), 37-38.



leadership ability. To seek further substantiation of the above findings ten students ranking quite low on recognition were selected for extensive counseling and guidance. It was found at the end of the period that all ten students had increased in their recognition rank.

Miller and Dollard<sup>1</sup> bring to the study of leadership a most significant viewpoint in which they stress imitation as a basis for social learning. They state that imitation is most likely to occur in those situations of hierarchy or rank with regard to specific skills and social status. Through a series of highly structured experimental studies, they applied the theory of learning through imitation to some of the aspects of leadership and fellowship.

Subjects for the various experiments were boys from the third and fourth grades of the city schools of New Haven. Miller and Dollard had set forth four classes of persons who are apt to hold leadership or status positions: those who are superior in an age-grade; in a hierarchy of social status; in an intelligence ranking system; and in technicians in any field. In general, these classifications fall in line with the findings of many other investigators.

Ackerson<sup>2</sup> approached leadership from a rather negative position in that his primary interest was in a quantitative investigation into many causal factors underlying undesirable behavior manifestations in children. His study was not intended primarily as an investigation into

<sup>1</sup>Neal E. Miller and John Dollard, Social Learning and Imitation (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1941), pp. 91-217.

<sup>2</sup>L. Ackerson, Children's Behavior Problems: Relative Importance and Inter-Correlation Among Traits. Vol. II (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942).



the deviation from the conventional norm of acceptable behavior in children. However, this study is deemed valuable in that it contributes to the understanding of some aspects of leadership. The sampling consisted of 2,113 white boys and 1,181 white girls between the ages of six and eighteen who had been examined at the Illinois Institute for Research. The entire study covers two volumes. Volume II deals with inter-correlations among children's traits, most of which were grouped as personality difficulties or conduct difficulties. Data were obtained from case notations which had been gained through interviews with parents, the subject, or from some informant who knew the subject. Among the 161 frequently noted behavior traits studied were "leader" and "follower." The results of these inter-correlations as they deal with leadership and personality traits will be presented in subsequent chapters of this study.

McCandless<sup>1</sup> gives an account of an experiment to test the hypothesis that in an autocratic group the relationship between dominative behavior and popularity will be highly correlated, but as the group becomes democratic this relationship will tend to decrease or disappear. The experiment was carried on at the Wayne County Training School, Northville, Michigan. The school gives training for future community adjustment to high grade mentally deficient boys, many of whom are pre-delinquent. The age range was from twelve years and five months to sixteen years and seven months.

In general, the plan of experimentation consisted in measuring the dominance and popularity of two groups of boys under different types

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<sup>1</sup>Boyd R. McCandless, "Changing Relationships between Dominance and Social Acceptability During Group Democratization," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, XII (1942), 529-535.



of control, namely, "autocratic rule" under adult authority and "self-government" which was totally handled by the boy residents of the experimental group. Data were gathered on the experimental group while it was under complete adult authority, then twice again at four month intervals after returning self-government to the boys. As a control, measures of dominance and popularity were made on a group of adult dominated boys over a four-month period. There were twenty-four boys in the experimental group and twenty-five in the control group.

Sociometric technique was used to obtain the popularity or social acceptability scores, while dominance<sup>1</sup> was measured by a paired comparison in which each boy in a cottage was compared by his supervisor with every other boy on three items: (1) showing the most initiative in performing tasks assigned to neither, (2) gaining possession of materials and equipment, and (3) using techniques of out-ordering or directing the other.

Correlation analysis showed a decrease from .77 to .34 in the relationship between dominance and popularity in the experimental group, whereas an increase from .63 to .84 was found in the control group. To summarize, it was found that there were highly significant positive relationships between popularity and dominance in the two groups when under complete adult control, whereas during the process of democratization of one group this relationship almost completely disappeared. The relationship showed a decided rise in the control group which remained under autocratic adult rule.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 531. The author calls the dominant boy in an autocratic society a leader and highly acceptable because he dares to react in a fashion in which all boys would like to react if it were not for certain restraints.



A follow-through of the six most dominant and the six least dominant boys disclosed the fact that although dominant boys grow somewhat less dominant and somewhat less popular with time, they still remain after eight months high in social acceptability and in qualities of leadership. The explanation offered is that with democratization other qualities such as good sportsmanship, participation in group activities, honesty, and some personal qualities become correlated with social acceptability.

The data of the study permit two hypotheses: (1) that the process of democratization might tend to obscure a correlation between dominance as such and social acceptability, but would not, for instance, reduce popularity of an extremely dominant boy who was also a very good sport; and (2) that the present method of research (group study) offers a hopeful approach for the study of extant and changing social patterns within a given group, and probably affords a valid picture of certain patterns of social personality.

Another study employing the pupil choice technique was made by Bonney<sup>1</sup> to determine factors related to the leadership positions of three groups of second grade children. Two public schools and one demonstration school in Houston, Texas, were the centers for this extensive investigation. Data collected at specified intervals during the school year on approximately ninety pupils in nineteen choosing situations yielded significant results on the distribution and stability of status<sup>2</sup> at the second grade

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<sup>1</sup>Merle E. Bonney, "A Study of Social Status on the Second Grade Level," Journal of Genetic Psychology, LX (1942), 217-305.

<sup>2</sup>Bonney stated that such terms as status, recognition, acceptance, and social success were all used interchangeably. See p. 272, Journal of Genetic Psychology, LX (1942).



level. Correlations between these status scores and other personality factors revealed that the trait which most clearly differentiated the highest from the lowest in status was "cooperation in a group" (a group sense of duty). This finding was in line with other positive leadership traits expressed as "confident before a group," "attractive appearance," and "having a contribution to make to the group."

Extending this study in the same school situation and by use of the same technique Bonney<sup>1</sup> was able to measure the degree of constancy between three successive grade levels--2nd, 3rd, and 4th--with respect to social acceptance, intelligence, academic attainment, mutual friends, and leaders.

The scores on general social acceptance and mutual friendship were obtained over three grade levels in three Denton Schools. Group intelligence tests and tests for measuring of academic achievement were administered. Correlations were run between intelligence and academic scores for the various grade levels and the four measurements previously named. All correlations were found to be quite high with the exception of those in mutual friendships. Results showed general social acceptance was approximately as constant over the three years as were I.Q.'s and academic achievement.

Correlations at each grade level disclosed the highest relationship between general social acceptance and mutual friendship while low

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<sup>1</sup>Merle E. Bonney, "The Relative Stability of Social Intelligence and Academic Status in Grades II to IV and the Interrelationships between These Various Forms of Growth," Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXIV (1943), 88-102.



relationship existed between general social acceptance and both intelligence and academic achievement.

The results of a breakdown by grades emphasized the constancy of social status by showing a greater stability for general social acceptance between the second and third grades than for either intelligence or academic achievement. Between the third and fourth grades of each school a high degree of constancy was seen in the correlations, .90, .68, and .69, but not as high as were found for intelligence and academic achievement between the same grade levels. The highest degree of stability, .90, was found in a school which had the smallest amount of pupil turnover. In general, the data gave the author basis for concluding that a child's social position from grade to grade in the elementary school is approximately as constant as is his position in intelligence and academic achievement.

Hunt<sup>1</sup> used the Personal Preference technique on a group of boys in a summer camp in Maine to arrive at some conclusions relative to leadership at the elementary level. There were twenty-three boys considered normal by common standards. The group was divided into four-cabin groups with two counselors in charge of each cabin. Data for the investigation were obtained from three sources: the group status ratings acquired through subject choices; personal camp sheet from the medical records; and the counselors' ratings on each boy on five traits: generosity - stinginess; physical attraction - ugliness; ordered activity - restlessness; lack of egocentricity - egocentricity; and obedience - disobedience.

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<sup>1</sup>J. M. Hunt and R. L. Solomon, "The Stability and Some Correlates of Group-Status in A Summer Camp Group of Young Boys," American Journal of Psychology, LV (1942), 33-45.



Outstanding in the findings were: (1) that personal preference techniques can be used quite successfully at this age level, (2) that the functional leader of the group can sometimes be identified by the number of indirect choices rather than always by the direct choices, and (3) with time in camp the correlation between group status and such characteristics as athletic ability decrease while those correlations between group status and behavioral traits increased.

By use of the interview technique, Mason<sup>1</sup> attempted to investigate leadership at the fourth grade level in order to determine initial signs of leadership; evidences of directional, organizational, or aggressive attitudes; personality traits; relationship to intelligence; and the extension of leadership ability into other school activities. A particular elementary school in Los Angeles with an enrollment of 346 pupils from kindergarten through the sixth grade furnished the setting for this study. The fourth grade selected for study had a membership of 33 pupils whose ages ranged from eight years to ten years and four months; intelligence ranked average or slightly above, and most of them came from middle class families.

The interview technique used to collect most of the data involved teachers, principals, playground attendants, and extended day workers. Child care supervision was offered at this school from six in the morning until six in the evening for working parents. A fairly accurate picture of each child was obtained from his activities and relationships in his classroom, in the school program in general, and on the playground during

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<sup>1</sup>Beverly D. Mason, "Leadership in the Fourth Grade," Sociology and Social Research, XXVI (March, 1952), 239-243.



and after school hours. To supplement these data collected by interview, the author used material from personality tests and certain other school records. The composite ratings for each child were arranged on a Data Sheet, developed by the writer, which classified and ranked each pupil on such measures as personality traits, intelligence, classroom officers, and playground status positions held. An analysis of the Data Sheet seemed to reveal seven outstanding leaders in a group of thirty-three pupils in dependability, ability to finish an assigned task, resourcefulness, and self-confidence. One significant finding for the purposes of this investigation into the leadership of children seemed to be that children begin to feel group minded at eight years of age. Generally, it was found that leadership behavior does extend itself into all school activities because the mature child in the classroom is likely to be the well coordinated child on the playground, and, also, the one most able to assume extra-curricular duties such as safety patrol, class positions, and scout work.

Maller<sup>1</sup> has contributed significantly to the understanding of some of the attributes of leadership through his attempts to measure aspects of cooperation with other variables at the elementary age-level. The population tested consisted 1,538 children from ten different schools. The grade range was from fifth through the eighth.

Sources of data were obtained from a behavior test devised to measure the responses to competition and cooperation including the relative intensity of each, and from ratings and scores on a number of

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<sup>1</sup>J. B. Maller, Cooperation and Competition: An Experimental Study in Motivation, Teachers College Contribution to Education No. 384 (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University Press, 1925).



objective tests. Pertinent to the problem of leadership was one general conclusion that cooperation was found to be specific rather than general but closely associated with other forms of social behavior and that it tends to be fundamental to the effective functioning of group organizations. Further, it was found that cooperation with an organized group resulted in greater efficiency than with an arbitrary group; that members of a group will tend to show a higher degree of cooperation if there is within the group little variation of intelligence, age and social factors. Finally, of concern in planning for leadership training, it was found that the lack of practice in group activities in which a child works with his fellows for a common goal precludes the formation of habits of cooperation.

Bedoian<sup>1</sup> made use of the sociometric device in a study comparing leadership ability through the measuring of social acceptance as it exists in what he termed "under-age," "at-age," and "over-age" pupils in the sixth grade. The rating scores were determined by the combined weighted scores of first, second, and third choices on four criteria of sociometric tests. These criteria embraced leadership ability on the playground, in official classroom positions, in social situations, and in situations requiring intellectual skills.

The population selected for this study comprised 743 sixth grade pupils from 22 different classes. Computation of the standard scores were made from tabulated raw scores through statistical procedures. It was evident from the data that age within a group determines social acceptance<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Vagharsh H. Bedoian, "Social Acceptability and Social Rejection of the Under-age, At-age, and Over-age on the Sixth Grade Level," Journal of Educational Research, XXXVII No. 7 (March, 1954), 513-520.

<sup>2</sup>The author through his criteria of sociometric questions embraces leadership status in his concept of social acceptance.



to a considerable degree. While the "under-age" pupils made the best showing, it was noted that the slightly "under-age" enjoyed a much higher status than those pupils who were "under-age" to a greater degree. A significantly larger proportion of "under-age" pupils was found among the "stars of attraction," while, on the other hand, the "over-age" pupils constituted a significantly larger proportion of the "rejectees." The "at-age" pupils seemed to hold rather constantly a place in the middle range of status choices. A point of great interest growing out of the study is that if "over-age" pupils are placed together, they enjoy a higher degree of status than do the "over-age" pupils who form the isolates in a class.

#### Reviews of Selected Foreign Studies

Among the studies of leadership in children are found six foreign studies which are of value to the present study. These selected foreign studies have used a sociological approach to leadership. Emphasis has been placed on the interaction in a group, the changes occurring in group structure, and the strength and stability of group norms in relation to certain types of leadership. Secondary sources of data for these brief reviews have been competent abstracts and translations. As stated previously, the foreign studies are included in the present study for descriptive and supportive purposes.

The first of the foreign studies is a report on child sociology by Chevaleva-Janovskaia.<sup>1</sup> Observations were made on 888 spontaneous

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<sup>1</sup>E. Chevaleva-Janovskaia, "Les groupements spontanés d'enfants à l'âge précolaires (The Spontaneous Grouping of Children of Preschool Age)," *Archives de Psychologie*, XX (1927), 219-233. Psychological Abstract, I (1927), 661.



groupings of children between the ages of three and eight in an infant school in Odessa, Russia. The investigation concerned itself with examining the age span of natural groupings, the number comprising each group, and the duration of childrens' groups.

It was found that children have a tendency to join comrades of an age little different from their own. In 40 per cent of the cases the children of the same group did not differ more than a year, while only 7 per cent gave a difference of three years. The most frequent groupings were those which included only two children with the frequency of groupings of three following closely. Groups of six and eight occurred with less frequency. The duration of free grouping among young children was found to be from ten to thirty minutes. Groups lasting two hours or more were very rare. The investigator was able to identify a "leader" in 53 per cent of the natural groupings. Boys were found to occupy places of leadership more often than girls. It was found that "aptitude" for being a leader increased with age.

Two years later Chevaleva-Janovakaia and Sylla<sup>1</sup> contributed an interesting study on the types of leadership in 400 groups of children. Techniques of observation and recording were employed to study the leadership behavior and the changes in the group under various conditions. After determining the leader in one group the experimenters placed him in a new group situation and noted changes in his behavior as a leader. In this way, changes in leadership and within the group could be noted.

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<sup>1</sup>E. Chevaleva-Janovakaia and D. Sylla, "Essai d'une 'etude sur les enfants meneurs (A Study of Leaders among Children)," *Journal de Psychologie*, XXVI (1929), 604-612. Psychological Abstracts, IV (1930), 153.



The investigators reported that child leaders were differentiated by such characteristics as: a longer duration of verbal excitation; greater rapidity in the formation of associative reactions; predominance of process of excitation over those of inhibition; greater facility in positive induction; and a higher degree of differentiation of reactions. However, these conclusions were held as relative and dependent upon the composition of the group, the situation, and the age and sex of the leader.

Marcia<sup>1</sup> concludes from his study on leadership in children that before the age of five there could be no leadership; that from five to eight leadership remained in a rather undeveloped form but became more clearly defined after nine years. He found that during puberty leadership seemed better developed and organized, but adolescence brought about regression, as leadership at this age seemed to lose its defined character. Individual leadership in boys was found to be more accentuated than in girls; that is, leadership in girls tended to be more equalized among the group and less directed by any one individual. Further, it was found that leadership in children was less defined than in adults.

In a series of highly structured experiments Luithlen<sup>2</sup> tested the "initiative and quality of child leaders" under various situations. The subjects were taken through a series of four tests in which a "two-person" technique was used. The paired technique consisted of presenting the

<sup>1</sup>G. E. Marcia, "Conducerea la copii," (Leadership in Children), *Review of Psychologie*, I (1938), 417-447. Psychological Abstracts, XIII (1939), 450.

<sup>2</sup>W. F. Luithlen, "Psychologie der initiative und der Fuhrereigenschaften," (The Psychology and the Quality of Leaders), *Xsch. f angew psychologie*, XXXIX (1931), 56-122. Psychological Abstracts, V (1931), 448.



couple with identical situations and testing materials. The first test involved words which were to be built jointly into meaningful sentences, while the second test was to build phrases into a connected story. The third test consisted of a picture-book series in which connected episodes were to be arranged. The fourth was devised to test inhibitions by evoking feelings of unpleasantness while covering a metal plate with smaller plates drawn from a dry box, a box filled with water, and a box filled with sticky fluid. Observations were made and all behavior responses recorded for all four tests.

The author found the ideal leader to be a compound of what he termed a characterological factor (initiative), a sociological factor (assertiveness), and a biological factor (vitality). The general conclusions were that character traits of leadership are related to specific situations, and that intellectuality of an academic variety is not essential to effective leadership.

From Japan comes one of the few studies on the leader-follower structure of school classes. Toki<sup>1</sup> adopted the questionnaire and the field experiment methods for his investigation of a large group of Japanese school children with an age range of eight through twelve. The questionnaire consisted of a series of questions about whom they considered a leader and the reasons for these choices. The field experiment constituted play and work group situations in which the leader sometimes took part and sometimes was removed from the group. The influence of the leader in each situation was recorded.

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<sup>1</sup>K. Toki, "Führer Gefolgschafts struktur in der Schulklasse (Leader-Follower Structure in School Classes)," Japanese Journal of Psychology, X (1935), 27-56. Psychological Abstracts, IX (1935), 543.



The author found that the leader-follower structure to which each child belongs increases in number and differentiation with the advancement of school years; that the same child may be a follower in one situation as well as a leader in another. He found that the structure of a group may continue to exist or may sometimes disappear. In one instance when he removed the leader to a small distance from the group, it collapsed, but when the leader was taken out of sight and reach there appeared a new structure which was called a "quasi-leader-follower" structure. However, with the return of the former leader this structure also disappeared. His general conclusion seemed to be that the leadership role is central to the maintenance of the group, and that in the presence of a satisfactorily functioning leader, the leadership potential of other members of the group is not likely to emerge.

A study of the relationship between the leader and the group by Merei<sup>1</sup> was concerned with such questions as: "Do group habits and traditions change with the appearance of the leader? Does the leader introduce new habits and does the group accept them? Does the group follow the leader or does it force its traditions upon him?" Observations were made in twelve groups of nursery children to discover the power of social penetration of twenty-six children capable of leadership. The ages of all the children ranged from four to eleven years. The age differences in a group never exceeded two years. In most cases each group was composed of three children, although some groups had four or six members. The leaders in most cases were older.

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<sup>1</sup>Merei, Ferenc, "Group Leadership and Institutionalization," Human Relations, II (1949), 23-39.



The general plan of the study consisted of three steps: (1) the selection of the twenty-six child leaders; (2) the formation of the twelve groups and observation of them; and (3) recording of the reactions of the twelve groups as each of the twenty-six leaders were introduced. A group was said to be institutionalized when their habits and traditions appeared to become lasting.

Merei found three types of leadership behavior expressed: the "order-giving," the "proprietor," and the "diplomat." It was found that the "play of forces" between the leader and group would depend upon the degree of crystalization of traditions, the extent of collaborative play, and the degree of group cohesion. The author concludes that confronted by a group having its own traditions the leader proves weak in spite of the fact that when confronting them singly he is stronger than any one member of the group--stronger precisely as to his social penetrating power.

### Summary

Brief reviews of leadership literature on American children at the pre-school and elementary levels have been presented in chronological order. The purpose of each review was to give information concerning the researcher, the purpose of the study, the social composition of the population, the technique used in the investigation, and the findings as related to the present study. No attempt at this point has been made to analyze the methodologies or results of the studies.

These studies met the criteria for selecting them as leadership studies in that they gave evidence either in the title or context of the



study that the phenomenon of leadership was under consideration either directly or indirectly. Each has made some contribution to the study of leadership.

Research at the pre-school level yields nine leadership studies most of which view leadership as a pattern of social contact or control over another individual since this age group has not reached the social maturity and expansion necessary for group participation. The few studies at this level might indicate inadequacies in the methodologies for leadership identification or the failure on the part of the adult to realize that leadership potentials at an early age are of significant value for exploration.

Twenty-two studies at the elementary level were reviewed, six of which extend the age range through the high school level. As stated previously, the placement of the studies with extended age range has been made according to the age emphasis in the study. The increase of the number of studies at the elementary level may be attributed to: (1) the age group which lends itself more readily to the various methodologies of the investigation; (2) the social-emotional maturity of the individual; and (3) an increase in opportunities of group interaction which gives rise to leadership.

The last section of the chapter presented reviews of six selected foreign studies on leadership in children. These studies have been presented for the purpose of furnishing comparative and supportive data for the present study.

Reviews of studies at the junior and senior high levels will be presented in the following chapter.



### CHAPTER III

#### REVIEW OF RESEARCH AT THE JUNIOR HIGH AND SENIOR HIGH LEVELS

The twentieth century has been referred to as "the century of the child" even though the child study movement has its beginnings in the nineteenth century. The measure of the value of the child studies lies in the contributions directly or indirectly to the improvement of the lives of the boys and girls. Facts become valuable only as they provide a dependable basis for knowledge and understanding. Therefore, the object of leadership research in adolescence is to extend the available knowledge about the adolescent in order that a sound basis for education and guidance may be provided.

The vast amount of research now available has provided much stimulation to those concerned with analyzing the findings bearing on growth and development of the individual. Although each period of life may be said to present a different individual with different needs, life is a continuum and the individual life span is a continuous process of development and change.

Traditionally, adolescence has been accepted as a term to describe individuals who are in transition between childhood and maturity. In effect, adolescence is more than a period or stage of human development; it is a way of life whose repercussions affect much of the adult life of the individual. In short, this period presents many unique situations and adjustment problems. Because adolescence is a time of seeking status



as an individual and a time when group relations are of major importance, it offers valuable opportunities for studying the phenomenon of leadership. However, in comparison to the voluminous studies devoted to various aspects of the social-emotional adjustment and the physical growth and development of the adolescent, the leadership aspects have been treated too sparingly.

#### Reviews of Studies at the Junior High Level

With a few exceptions, leadership investigations at the junior high level have been incorporated in research on the high school level, the elementary level, or on both levels because of overlapping in age groups. Among such studies will be found Ackerson's<sup>1</sup> which dealt with behavior problems of boys and girls from the elementary level on through the high school level. Likewise, Partridge<sup>2</sup> in a study of Boy Scouts extended his research to cover a wide range. Levi<sup>3</sup> used all three age levels in a study to determine leadership carry-over through the school years. The evaluation of adolescence by adolescents conducted by Tryon<sup>4</sup> included both junior high and senior high levels. Newstetter<sup>5</sup> in his sociological experiment used boys with an age range from twelve to seventeen in a camping situation. One thousand three hundred and thirteen boys' gangs ranging from elementary age through high school age were studied by Thrasher.<sup>6</sup>

There are, however, four studies that are confined to the junior high level. Among the earlier attempts to determine the characteristics of a leader at the junior high level was the study, "Some Characteristics

<sup>1</sup>Ackerson, op. cit.      <sup>2</sup>Partridge, op. cit.      <sup>3</sup>Levi, op. cit.

<sup>4</sup>Tryon, op. cit.      <sup>5</sup>Newstetter, op. cit.      <sup>6</sup>Thrasher, op. cit.



of Leadership," by R. L. Nutting.<sup>1</sup> Efforts in this experiment were made to answer such questions as: What characteristics do the group think are good and what ones do they think are necessary in leaders? Do leaders thus chosen rank high or low in intelligence and scholarship? Are they tall, short, slender, or stocky? How do they rank in ages? Are they the most popular girls in their classes? What reasons are given for choosing them?

Seventh and eighth grade girls' gym classes were used for the experimental study. Methods of student selection were employed. At the beginning of the semester the gym classes voted for two captains. The teams, also, selected assistant captains. Reasons for the choices were recorded. Among the characteristics listed were: honest, obeys, plays fair, capable, dependable, trustworthy, able to control team, and clean.

Comparisons were made of the choices in relationship to popularity, intelligence, and physical characteristics of the chosen leaders. Results of the findings indicated that captains were usually popular although they may have been selected for other reasons; that chosen captains were about the same as other children in native intelligence and scholarship; and that although preference was given for the sturdy, well-built and mature leader, there were wide variations in this choice. Most of the findings in this study merely indicate trends.

Caldwell and Wellman<sup>2</sup> contributed a study concerned with the characteristics and traits associated with junior high leaders who were

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<sup>1</sup>R. L. Nutting, "Some Characteristics of Leadership," School and Society, XVIII (1923), 378-390.

<sup>2</sup>Otis W. Caldwell, and Beth Wellman, "Characteristics of School Leaders," Journal of Educational Research, XIV (June, 1926), 1-15.



chosen by their classmates as representatives in school activities. The pupils selected for investigation were sixty-three boys and fifty girls distributed in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades of the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University. Six types of representatives were considered: class presidents, student-council members, magazine staff members, athletic captains, science-club officers, and citizenship representatives.

Data on seven characteristics were collected from school records, teacher ratings, and tests. The traits were chronological age, mental age, intelligence quotient, scholarship, height, extroversion, and physical achievement. Analysis of the data revealed that the characteristics of the boys and girls chosen by their classmates as representatives in school activities vary with the type of activity in which the subjects were to engage. For example, high physical achievement was the outstanding characteristic for athletics while in other types of situations this was not a prominent characteristic of leaders. Chronological age and height did not seem to have great influence on the choice of leaders made. Leaders in all groups excelled in scholarship. However, the athletic leaders among the boys were the lowest in scholarship although they were at the average of their classes. Ratings exceptionally high in scholarship were reported for the leaders in student council, magazine staff, and science clubs.

One of the earlier studies dealing with the elements which lead pupils to choose amongst their fellows for positions of leadership was made by Caldwell.<sup>1</sup> His study seemed to be based on the assumption that

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<sup>1</sup>Otis W. Caldwell, "Some Factors in Training for Leadership," National Association for Secondary School Principals, Fourth Yearbook, (1920), pp. 2-13.



a group which has worked together long enough to become fairly well acquainted has consciously or unconsciously reached conclusions concerning those of its members who may safely be called upon to take charge of any group enterprise. To determine to what extent the group of children recognized their leaders and the qualities which they regarded as commendable in leaders, the investigator presented questionnaires to a group of 282 pupils from the seventh through the twelfth grades in New York City. Boys were to select boys to represent them and the girls were to select girls; both groups were asked to give reasons for choosing an individual. The questionnaire requested that the children identify their choice of individuals whom they considered best qualified to lead the class in certain situations.

The situations described in the questionnaire were: (1) a trip to a wharf where an ocean liner was unloading, (2) making a trip to another school where the class was to give a program, (3) preparing a plan to be presented for the reorganization and administration of athletics in their school. It should be noted that all situations were real ones.

Results of the choosing disclosed that in the particular situations presented to these pupils there was good judgment on the part of the pupils regarding the members of their group best fitted to lead them. It also appears that the leaders chosen only slightly excel others in the group in scholarship, but they were persons of better than average intelligence. The traits mentioned in the pupils' reasons for their particular choices were grouped under four headings: (1) dependability, (2) intelligence, (3) social adaptation, (4) age and size. The investigator stressed the fact that his findings represent indications rather than conclusions.



In summarizing the author says,

If initiative, originality, presence of mind, trustworthiness, responsibility, poise, fair judgment, respect for fellows, cooperability, etc., are essential elements of leadership, they should receive more of our attention in our educational procedures.<sup>1</sup>

Schuler's<sup>2</sup> study deals with the nature and extent of consistency of behavior as related in two socially significant types of behavior, namely, dominant and submissive. In the study, the two terms incorporate the idea of leadership and followship as the investigator defines the dominant boy as one who controls, influences, and/or directs the behavior of others, and the submissive boy as one who "obeys and subordinates himself to the authority and leadership of the other individuals."

The population on which the investigation was made was drawn from the junior high (grades seven, eight, and nine) and the senior high schools of a certain town in Massachusetts. It consisted of 234 junior high boys whose age range was eleven years through sixteen years and 195 senior high boys with an age range from thirteen years to twenty-one years. The data for each individual included: (1) rating by the teacher, (2) rating by the student himself, (3) ratings by one parent or both, (4) experimental data obtained by the investigator, (5) intelligence quotient based on one or more tests, and (6) chronological age.

The teacher rating, self-rating, and parent rating scales were designed to disclose behavior patterns or reactions to various situations for each individual which could be classified as dominant, average, or

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 11.

<sup>2</sup>E. A. Schuler, "A Study of Consistency of Dominant and Submissive Behavior in Adolescent Boys," Journal of Genetic Psychology, XLVI (1935), 403-432.



submissive behavior. The experimental procedure consisted of observing and recording the interaction between paired subjects in five different situations. The items recorded by the observer consisted of certain supposedly significant elements of behavior which would classify one of the paired subjects as consistently more dominant or submissive.

Analysis of the data brought out three significant generalizations bearing on the problem of consistency of dominant and submissive behavior. First, there appears to be a tendency for boys as their ages increase to show an increasing modification away from the extreme forms of both dominance and submission toward a more conventional mode of behavior. Second, there appears to be a tendency for the type of behavior within a general environment to become more clearly definable, consistent, and predictable with increasing age. The older boys displayed a greater stability of basic behavior patterns within a general environment. Third, as age increases dominant-submissive behavior in adolescent boys may be ascertained with increasing reliability by teachers in one situation such as school, but at the same time it becomes less possible to predict those tendencies in another environment, such as the home.

Kavanagh<sup>1</sup> presents a definite comparison of the characteristics between leaders and non-leaders as studied in a group of 500 Catholic Girl Scouts who were members of the Intermediate Girls Scout Troops established within the Archdiocese of Newark. The ages of the girls were from eleven years and eight months to fifteen years and ten months. They were in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades in school.

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<sup>1</sup>Sister M. Alexandra Kavanagh, "A Comparative Study of Leaders and Non-Leaders among Catholic Girl Scouts," (Unpublished dissertation, New York: Fordham University, 1944), p. 140.



Data were collected by questionnaires and testing devices. The questionnaire was designed to obtain information on Scout Rank or Tenure, elective positions of leadership held, age, height, weight, position in family, and scholastic achievement as indicated by school marks. Testing procedures obtained information on mental development, developmental age, and personal adjustment of each girl.

The selection of the leaders was based on the elective positions of leadership held by each girl as ascertained from the questionnaires. Those girls holding three or more elective positions, one in the Scout Troop and two in church and school activities, were designated as leaders, while those girls not fulfilling requirements in elective positions were placed in the non-leader group. Final tabulations revealed 112 leaders and 388 non-leaders. The two groups were compared in each of the following: physical characteristics, mental ability, scholastic attainment, socio-economic background, developmental age, and personal-social adjustment.

Analysis by means of the critical ratio technique seemed to warrant the author's general description of a leader:

The elected leaders were older, heavier, and taller; came from better homes and better socio-economic status; were superior in total personal adjustment as well as in self-adjustment. The elected leaders were average in mental ability. In maturity as expressed in preference, interests, and attitudes, the leaders were slightly inferior to the non-leaders.<sup>1</sup>

Lathan<sup>2</sup> investigated the relationship between pubertal status and leadership in junior high boys. The purpose of the study was to determine

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<sup>1</sup> Ibid., p. 120.

<sup>2</sup> A. J. Lathan, "The Relationship between Pubertal Status and Leadership in Junior High School Boys," Journal of Genetic Psychology, LXXVII (June, 1951), 185-194.



whether or not within each age group a significantly larger proportion of leaders were selected from among the mature boys than from among the immature boys.

The population selected for study consisted of 837 white male students of three junior high schools in Pittsburgh. The subjects, varying in age from eleven to seventeen, were divided into one-year age groups. The members of each age group were then classified according to leadership criteria and the Crampton criteria for sexual maturity. The social leaders were determined on a basis of appointive and elective positions held, while the athletic leaders were chosen by homeroom and gym members. It was found that only the thirteen and fourteen age levels were both mature and immature in sufficient numbers to justify analysis.

For these groups the significance of difference between percentage of leaders in the mature and immature groups was calculated and coefficients of correlation were computed in order to determine relationship between leadership and sexual maturity. It was found that only among the athletic leaders did mature boys show a consistent superiority over the immature boys. The athletic leaders' participation in athletic leadership showed a significant increase from the chronological age thirteen to the chronological age fourteen. The mature thirteen year olds participated to a greater extent in athletic leadership than did immature fourteen year olds.

#### Reviews of Studies at the High School Level

The leadership studies at the high school level disclose many techniques for studying various aspects of leadership behavior. It may be assumed that by the time an individual reaches this age level he has



formed definite patterns of behavior which may be easily identified as potentials in leadership. At the high school level are more opportunities for expressing leadership; therefore, it is reasonable to expect that more varied problems involving student leadership will emerge.

As previously stated several leadership investigations covering elementary, junior high, and high school age levels have been made. Descriptions of these reviews have been given in Chapter II. For complete listing the following studies should be named in this chapter. They are studies by Ackerson,<sup>1</sup> Partridge,<sup>2</sup> Levi,<sup>3</sup> Tryon,<sup>4</sup> Newstetter,<sup>5</sup> and Thrasher.<sup>6</sup> It should be noted that the Caldwell<sup>7</sup> review presented in the Junior High Leadership Reviews includes the high school age level, also. Other high school reviews on leadership are herewith presented.

Bennett and Jones<sup>8</sup> report a study of leadership and intelligence of twenty-nine pupils attending Rochester Shop School. The grade range was from ten to twelve and the age range ran from fourteen years to eighteen years. The purposes of the study were to determine whether the possession of certain leadership qualities indicate ability to become a leader and whether intelligence underlies these qualities.

The intelligence rating was determined by means of the Otis Group Intelligence Test, while the combined judgments of principals, instructors, and athletic directors gauged the leadership ability of the boys. The

<sup>1</sup>Ackerson, op. cit.      <sup>2</sup>Partridge, op. cit.      <sup>3</sup>Levi, op. cit.

<sup>4</sup>Tryon, op. cit.      <sup>5</sup>Newstetter, op. cit.      <sup>6</sup>Thrasher, op. cit.

<sup>7</sup>Caldwell, op. cit.

<sup>8</sup>H. S. Bennett and B. R. Jones, "Leadership in Relation to Intelligence," School Review, XXXI (1923), 125-126.



results of the investigation seemed to indicate that intelligence was a definite part of leadership ability and that low intelligence seemed to bar a person from leadership. Those students having high intelligence, 110 to 130, appeared to possess to a marked degree such qualities as initiative, courage, self-trust, insight, kindliness, good humor, knowledge of human nature, good physique and bodily energy.

An interesting approach to the leadership problem was used in a study by Lynn.<sup>1</sup> Through a comparison of rural and urban elementary schools, the investigator endeavored to determine which type of school was more efficient in producing pupils displaying leadership qualities at the high school level. This constituted an approach to the problem of transferability of leadership from the elementary to the high school level, but the chief emphasis of the study was placed on locating leadership ability at the high school level and tracing its "source" in terms of elementary, rural and urban, schools. There were no comparisons of leadership at the various levels. The relationship between leadership and scholarship was another aspect considered in the study.

The setting of the study was in the schools of Harvey County, Kansas. The population selected were the graduates of the year 1923 of the elementary schools who had entered a high school. From this list of students the "leader groups" were selected on the basis of a scale devised by the investigator for measuring leadership. Twenty-seven high school activities in order of importance were selected as a result of school

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<sup>1</sup>Fred H. Lynn, "The Source of High School Leaders in the High Schools of Harvey County, Kansas" (Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Kansas, 1924), p. 42.



specialists' combined opinions and used in the leadership measuring device. The extent of pupil participation in each of these twenty-seven activities was determined by use of a questionnaire check list. A weighted scale was then used in measuring the leadership ability of each high school student to determine the leadership score. Comparisons were then made in relation to leadership scores and the "source" of the leaders' training. Those leaders who came from urban elementary schools were classified as the "urban leaders," while those coming from rural elementary schools received the "rural leader" classification.

Findings show a small but positive correlation between scholarship and leadership. Even though more leaders in high school came from urban elementary schools, it was found that those leaders having a rural elementary background had a slightly higher correlation with scholarship. The general conclusion drawn from this investigation seemed to indicate that although rural schools are slightly less efficient in training for leadership, the rural leadership scores had a higher correlation with scholarship than did the urban leadership scores. The combined scores for "rural leaders" showed a small but positive correlation of .20 between leadership and scholarship.

In a study portraying several individual leaders, Van Waters<sup>1</sup> shows agreement with Brown's<sup>2</sup> thinking along the line that leadership is always mysterious, and even though we do not know the physical and mental

<sup>1</sup>Miriam Van Waters, "The Child Who Is A Leader," Survey, LVIII (1927), 498-505.

<sup>2</sup>S. Brown, "Some Case Studies of Delinquent Girls Described as Leaders," British Journal of Educational Psychology, I (1931), 162-179.



forces which lie back of the personality and which become a dynamic center, we are beginning to understand some of the conditions under which leadership manifests itself in anti-social ways.

The writer considered in detail the histories of a number of girls, most of whom were delinquent and were leaders in their groups. In a comparison of delinquent leaders and non-delinquent leaders, the investigator states that leaders who were called constructive have been given something in their family group which makes for the growth of responsibility.

She found that many delinquent leaders had had good normal parental relationships and adequate understanding on the part of the community withheld from them so long that their only road to prestige seemed to lie in rebellion of some sort. Evidences are apparent that the deepest forces of social life and family relationship enter into the simplest cases of "bad companionships."

Delinquent leaders were characterized as having tremendous vitality, daring, a keen sense of repartee, and, in short, a personality remarkably well adjusted to the needs of the group. Delinquent leaders were found to be careless, nonchalant, and unpremeditated. They seemed to lead because of the drabness of their surroundings and their own amazing vitality and play-sense. In contrast, the non-delinquent leader was found to be confident, of average intelligence, and in normal health. She possessed a sense of well-being, a capacity for hard work, and the ability to see things through. Her interests were identified with her family and friends. There is close relationship among the members of her family. She has concern for people and feels responsible for them.



Another study of selection and election of pupil leaders by pupils is found in a descriptive study by Prosh.<sup>1</sup> The setting of the study was in two physical education classes whose membership was nineteen and twenty-one, respectively. The procedure involved outlining the aims of the physical education department in the first class meeting and in preparing for a two weeks' orientation period before the election of class officers. During this time students would be given the opportunity to know classmates better and would become more aware of the need for well-chosen leaders.

After the election in which students voted for the class officers, the students were asked to note the reasons for their choices, and to evaluate the qualities necessary for leadership. All tabulations were made in the terms the student gave, but they were classified under physical traits, social traits, and mental traits to facilitate tabulations and to act as an aid in making general deductions. Some traits which seemed to receive equal value were: (1) posture and athletic ability, (2) bright, wide-awake and ability to talk, (3) friendly and pleasant disposition.

Results according to the composite tabulations showed that the Social Aspects created the greater impression on the group with Physical Aspects ranking second in scores, and the Mental Aspects ranking third. The scores were 106, 73, and 61, respectively. Perhaps the finding from this study with greatest implication for identifying our leaders is the fact that almost any quality developed by one individual to a greater extent than his associates is easily recognized by the group.

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<sup>1</sup>F. Prosh, "The Basis on which Students Choose Their Leaders," American Physical Education Review, XXXIII (1928), 265-267.



An extensive study was made of leaders in the Pittsburgh High School by Eckert.<sup>1</sup> The grade range included the seventh through the twelfth. The study consisted of two parts: the first concerned itself with pupil choice of leaders, while the second consisted of a comparison of presidents and non-presidents of school activities.

In the first part of the study an attempt was made to reveal those traits pupils consider important in selecting leaders for various school activities. Data were obtained from a ballot devised for this study which contained a place for the name of the chosen leader and spaces by a list of twenty-six traits to indicate three reasons for the choice. Twenty thousand ballots were cast at the opening of the second semester, February, 1928, and six thousand two hundred twenty-two of these were returned for students elected for president by their homerooms or clubs. Charts were made to show the value attached to certain leadership traits by boys and girls in terms of grade and sex differences.

The second part of the study dealt with the differences between pupils in two paired groups. The "president" group composed of elected homeroom and club presidents was compared with a "non-president" group consisting of pupils chosen at random from those never elected as president of any group. Comparisons were made between these groups to determine differences in chronological age, IQ, socio-economic status, self-rating and teacher rating, extent of foreign born parentage, and scholarship. Data on the above aspects were obtained from school records, a pupil information blank, intelligence tests, and rating scales, by pupil and teacher, devised by the author.

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<sup>1</sup>Dana Z. Eckert, "Leadership in the High School Democracy of Pittsburgh Schools," Pittsburgh Schools, IV (September, 1929), 4-91.



A significant conclusion was that high school pupils seem to show discrimination and an increasing ability with age to evaluate the traits of leadership. Further, the study showed that students and adults were not in agreement on leadership traits. However, it was found that those qualities which adults considered trivial tend to decrease in importance attached to them by students as they progressed to higher grades. Scholarship was given an important rank as a desirable leadership trait by seventh graders but was accorded only tenth place by twelfth graders. Co-operation and acceptance of responsibility were given increasing weight by more mature students. Fair play was found to hold a high rank through all grades. The high school students showed greater consistency in naming traits of leadership held important by members of the same sex. The study revealed that the important traits of club presidents were not in all cases considered important traits for homeroom presidents. The club presidents tended to be a more selective group than did homeroom presidents. The "president" group was found to be superior to the "non-president" group in IQ, socio-economic status, self-rating, teacher rating, and scholastic achievement.

Another study in leadership in the area of extra-curricular activities of the high school was made by Bellingrath.<sup>1</sup> The investigator endeavored to find:

To what extent certain qualities are present in those high school pupils who have been elected by their fellows to positions of leadership in extra-curricular activities, and to what extent they are found in pupils who are not elected to offices of leadership, and to find to what extent these qualities are related to elected leadership in extra-curricular activities.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>George C. Bellingrath, *Qualities Associated with Leadership in the Extra-Curricular Activities of the High School*. Teachers College Contribution to Education, No. 399 (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University Press, 1930), p. 56.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 2.



Traits selected for study were: sex, age, height, weight, intelligence, school marks, school habits, socio-economic background, and introversion-extroversion.

This study involved three important steps: (1) the selection of pupils to be studied, (2) the measurement of certain selected traits for each member of an experimental group and of a control group, and (3) a study of traits to find differences between the groups and to find relationships between elected leaders and the traits measured.

Questionnaires relative to office holding in extra-curricular activities were filled in by 240 senior high students from five different high schools in New York City. A point system was used to determine the leadership score of each pupil. Those having the largest number of points were classified as Group A, while those scoring lower were placed in Group B. Data were obtained also by means of tests and records on sex, age, height, weight, intelligence, school marks, school habits, social and economical background, and introversion-extroversion.

Statistical analysis was used to determine the differences between leaders and non-leaders in the ten selected traits listed above. The investigation showed that a larger number of boys than girls were elected to positions of leadership. However, boys and girls seemed to share equally the number of positions of leadership which were open to both sexes. Girl leaders on the whole were found to be younger than their control group mates while boy leaders were older than boy non-leaders. Boys and especially girls who are elected to leadership tend to be taller and heavier than students not so elected. Leaders in extra-curricular activities received higher marks in their school studies and seem to have higher social backgrounds than do those who are not leaders.



S. C. Brown<sup>1</sup> investigated the personality of delinquent girls, aged fifteen to seventeen, described as "leaders who won this position of leadership through blame for influencing others." This leadership might be termed as "leading others into misconduct." The investigation also leads into a scrutiny of the social circumstances which would account for their selection and a comparison of the way in which these circumstances differ from non-delinquent girl leaders.

Samples selected for study consisted of three groups. Group A was made up of six delinquent leaders from a home for wards of the court, while Group C was composed of fifteen girls who had claimed to be led by those in Group A. Group B consisted of fifteen non-delinquent leaders, aged fourteen to eighteen, selected from a high school in Los Angeles.

The chief source of data came from court records, educational records, social agencies, medical and psychometric reports, informal interviews with the girls and relatives, and by direct observation by the experimenter.

Method of study consisted of making complete case histories of Group A and C and then comparing Group A with Group B. The data revealed the delinquent leader to be characterized as having superior physique, a high level of energy output in physical activities, and interest in and enjoyment of social relationships, and a general "turning out" of attention. The level of general intelligence was not found to be of significance as an isolated factor. Leaders in both Groups A and B showed a high degree of physical accomplishments. Of great difference and in

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<sup>1</sup>S. C. Brown, "Some Case Studies of Delinquent Girls Described as Leaders," British Journal of Educational Psychology, I (1931), 162-179.



favor of the non-delinquent leader was the home-family relationships and the social circumstances which accounted for the leadership selection of each. The delinquent leader seemed to gain prestige through being able to supply ways and means not otherwise accessible to the follower for attaining goals which were not looked upon favorably by society. The non-delinquent leader gained leadership by showing abilities in helping attain socially accepted goals. In both cases, the leader helped the group move toward goals accepted by them.

Baldwin<sup>1</sup> endeavored to study the factors associated with high school boy leadership. Forty leaders were selected from the total population of five city and three suburban high schools on the basis of faculty opinions in each school while a control group of forty were selected at random from the regular files.

The author devised a questionnaire for the comparative study of leaders and non-leaders. Factors considered in the questionnaire were those related to personal history, habits, nationality, family background, socio-economic status, school marks, offices held and participation in extra-curricular activities, social life, interests, hobbies, and church attendance.

The data gathered by the questionnaire revealed that the factors which appeared quite constant in both the leader and control groups and with such small variance that they were not distinctly of the leader group were: physical defects, disposition, nationality, parental relationship, scholastic background of parents, and socio-economic status.

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<sup>1</sup>Lawrence E. Baldwin, "A Study of Factors Associated with High School Male Leadership (Unpublished Master's Thesis, The Ohio State University, 1932), pp. 1-42.



The characteristics which seemed to constitute a complex part of leadership were appearance, confident tone of speech, capable of making quick decisions, tolerance, creativeness, dependableness, cooperativeness, and emotional control. The outstanding characteristic revealed in the study was the attainment of much higher scholastic grades by the leader group.

Wetzel<sup>1</sup> in a brief study on high school leaders endeavored to discover something about the kind of leadership that comes to the surface in the free atmosphere of a modern high school.

Data were collected on 56 pupils, 33 boys and 25 girls, who held appointive and/or elective positions of leadership in the Trenton Senior High School. The elective positions among which the population was distributed included class officers, captains of athletic teams, managers on editorial board, intramural sports, class play status positions, and cheer leaders. Other sources of data were school records and pupil-teacher character trait ratings.

Comparisons of the reading ability quotient showed a median of 110 for the leaders as against a class median of 91.5. The average scholarship ratings of the leader group was 2.79, approximately the mathematical value of a mark of B, while the average scholarship rating of the entire school was 1.90, equivalent of the C grade.

The highest composite rating given by teachers and pupils on character traits was found to be in "courtesy and sportsmanship," while the highest rate by pupils themselves was on "physical vigor." Other significant high character trait ratings by teachers were: "respect

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<sup>1</sup>William A. Wetzel, "Characteristics of Pupil Leaders," School Review, XL (1932), 532-534.



for school regulations," "cooperation," "responsibility," and "self-control." Interestingly, the pupil ratings matched the teacher ratings with the exception of self-control which was found to be much lower. This might indicate a difference in adult and adolescent concepts of self-control or a difference in the situation under which each had opportunity to observe self-control.

Finch and Carroll<sup>1</sup> sought to investigate and evaluate the prevalent belief that the "average student admired by his fellows because of his lack of interest in things of the mind holds most of the elective offices in school, in college, and in life."

The population for the investigation was selected from University High School at the University of Minnesota because it is believed that University High School students are almost invariably superior children. It was found that the mean intelligence quotient of the group of 211 pupils was 118. The main source of data was the cumulative records of seniors in the University High School. The records of all members of the senior classes from 1927 to 1932 were examined, and all students who were found to have an I.Q. of 130 or above were placed in a group called "gifted"; those with I.Q.'s ranging from 115 to 120 were placed in a group designated as "superior"; and those with I.Q.'s from 95 to 105 were placed in a group thereafter called "average." It was possible then to match 66 pupils in each of the group levels on the factors of sex and of years at the University High School. The measure of leadership was based on the number of positions in extra-curricular activities to which an individual had been elected by his fellows.

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<sup>1</sup>F. H. Finch and H. H. Carroll, "Gifted Children as High School Leaders," Journal of Genetic Psychology, XLI (1932), 472-481.



Analysis of the data of the three group levels of intelligence among the high school students revealed that the "gifted," although younger, excelled both the other groups in the number of leadership points earned. When the groups were divided according to sex, it was discovered that the advantage still lay with the more intellectual group although the difference between the "gifted" and "superior" girls was slightly less than the difference between the "gifted" and "superior" boys. The evaluation of the leader point average at the three levels of intelligence showed that the gifted group had received more points, which tends to prove that the gifted child is not "the unpopular little unfortunate he is often pictured as being."

In summarizing, the investigator states that even with such a small sampling the figures of the study indicate rather definitely that, "given a superior group of children to lead, the leading will tend to be done by the gifted children, while those who are at the lower end of the curve of the group have comparatively little opportunity to be elected to popular office." This conclusion is in agreement with Terman<sup>1</sup> and Hollingsworth<sup>2</sup> who have conducted similar studies.

Another study of the characteristics of pupils chosen to positions of leadership in high school was reported by Brown.<sup>3</sup> The investigation was based on 259 pupils selected for positions of leadership in the University High School at Oakland, California. Sources of data used

<sup>1</sup>Terman, op. cit., p. 432.      <sup>2</sup>Hollingsworth, op. cit., p. 135.

<sup>3</sup>Mildred Brown, Leadership among High School Pupils, Teachers College Contribution to Education, No. 559 (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933).



in this study were school records, questionnaires, and interviews. From the individual pupil records information on extra-curricular activities, positions of office, health, scholarship, and intelligence were obtained. The pupil questionnaires furnished information relative to participation in extra-curricular activities, use of leisure time, hobbies, membership in outside organizations, and subject preference. Informal interviews furnished additional personal data. Factors studied in relation to pupils holding leadership positions were grade, class in school, age, social background, physique, intelligence, scholarship, subject preference, and diversity of interests.

Findings revealed that pupils holding positions of leadership in extra-curricular activities were a select group with respect to intelligence, scholarship, and socio-economic status. This selective tendency was also demonstrated in the choice of school subjects, vocational interests, and in the continuance of education beyond high school. Evidence in this study seemed to give basis for the generalization that leaders of superior intelligence and scholarship have a greater variety of interests and of activities than the less superior pupils. Diversity of interests rather than similarity seemed characteristic of the individual leader. Brown pictures the typical leader as one younger than his classmates, above average in intelligence and scholarship; he seems to surpass his fellows in posture and appearance; he is American born and represents a relatively high economic and social stratum as judged by the occupation of his parents.



A study of leadership in a natural situation was made by Stray<sup>1</sup> through an attempt to select those leadership traits which were most prevalent among girl leaders at girl camps. Questionnaires involving leadership trait ratings were sent to thirty selected directors of girls' camps on the Pacific Coast. To supplement these data the author used records and anecdotal materials from personal experience and observation in several girls' camps in California. The age range of girls studied was from about ten years to seventeen years.

Total scores were obtained through classifying the thirteen selected leadership traits in order of their importance and assigning weighted measures to them.

Results showed the highest score for "health and vitality" with "loyalty," "enthusiasm," "sportsmanship," "skill," "tact," "organizational ability" following in rank order.

Interesting experimental studies in leadership training were conducted by Eichler.<sup>2</sup> Parallel and equated group techniques in four experiments with high school students were used. The first part of the study involved two complete experiments carried on concurrently in two different schools at the ninth and twelfth grade levels. Student ratings on a five point scale were used to equate the two experimental groups and the two control groups. Special leadership training programs were conducted in the experimental groups for a period of one year. Although a positive

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<sup>1</sup>H. F. Stray, "Leadership Traits of Girls in Girl Camps," Sociology and Social Research, XVIII (1934), 241-250.

<sup>2</sup>G. A. Eichler, Studies in Student Leadership, Penn. State Studies in Education, No. 10 (Pittsburgh: Penn State College, 1934), p. 55.



gain in leadership ability was found in the experimental groups, the results were not statistically significant. It was decided to continue the leadership program of the ninth grade group for another year. This training period constituted four conferences of pupils and counsellor during the year with opportunities for actual practice in leadership. Results at the end of the second year of training revealed a higher gain in favor of the experimental group.

Another teaching-project in leadership was conducted similar to the first, but this time making available to the group the analysis of leadership as shown through the program. The importance of certain traits was stressed in this training period. The experimental group did not show as great a loss in points in leadership as did the control group; this seemed to indicate a trend toward the success of the training period. Since all four of these experiments revealed positive results, even though some were low, it seemed justifiable to conclude that leadership qualities can be improved by direct instruction.

As a further exploratory study of leadership, Eichler attempted a quantitative analysis of leadership traits. One hundred and eighty students from grades nine through twelve were selected for study. Ratings on leadership were obtained by student ratings. Other data concerning intelligence, scholarship, social intelligence, height, and ascendancy were obtained from objective tests, while teacher ratings furnished data on vitality, individuality, social adaptability, self-control, persistence, and voice. The co-efficients of correlation between leadership and each of the above traits were then obtained. Highest correlations with leadership were found in individuality, persistence, height, self-control,



social adaptation, and scholarship, while low but positive correlations were found in vitality, social intelligence, and intelligence. Negative correlations were found between leadership and ascendancy and between leadership and voice.

By use of a factor analysis, Fleming attempted to determine which of a large number of psychological traits presumably associated with personality are related to ability to lead and whether or not leadership was definitely associated with certain clusters of traits more than with other clusters.

He bases the criterion of leadership upon the positions of leadership or responsibility actually held by the 71 girls during ninth, tenth, and eleventh grades in the Horace Mann School for girls. A weighted credit point system was used to determine the personality traits.

Teacher ratings for each on a list of forty-six traits were obtained. On a scale of ten the teacher indicated the amount of personality that each girl possessed. In addition a measure of "pleasingness of personality" for each subject was obtained by each girl indicating on a scale of ten the intensity of pleasant feelings that she subjectively associated with every other girl of her class. Results of a factor analysis and the usual correlation techniques revealed positive and definite relationship between leadership and personality (teacher rating .50, girls rating .33), and that the more personality the individual has the more likely he is to be called to a position of leadership.

One outstanding discovery was that among the list of forty traits selected for correlation, there was no single co-efficient which showed a

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<sup>1</sup>E. J. Fleming, "A Factor Analysis of the Personality of High School Leaders," Journal of Applied Psychology, XIX (1935), 596-605.



very high or significant association with leadership. The conclusion may be drawn that apparently leadership, like personality itself, is made up of a number of diverse elements, no one of which is of paramount importance to the others.

The highest positive correlations were reported for liveliness, wide interest, intelligence, and being a good sport while negative coefficients were found for smiling countenance, tolerance, courteousness, not easily excited, and modesty. Worth noting is the negative correlation of leadership with modesty which suggests that there seems to be some logical and obvious reasons why leaders should be lacking in modesty.

Conclusions of this study centered upon the possibility of the factor analysis as a technique for revealing types of leaders found in a particular group; that in the group studied there seemed to be four types of leadership ability--the entertaining, the brilliant, the cultural-talented, and the just; but that the highest score on our criterion of leadership is a personality embracing qualities from all the types.

In summarizing, it was found that basic to leadership were such traits as liveliness, wide interest, intelligence, good sportsmanship, ability to amuse, athletic prowess, a pleasant voice, and the absence of modesty. Indications were that with these eight traits leadership is not guaranteed, but without a majority of them leadership is improbable.

Smith's<sup>1</sup> comparative study of Indian student leaders and followers is the only one known of its kind. This investigation led into a study of the differences between Indian boy and girl leaders, differences in judgment

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<sup>1</sup>M. Smith, "Comparative Study of Indian Student Leaders and Followers," Social Forces, XIII (1935), 418-426.



traits, race difference of leaders (Indian and white), and differences in various personality factors.

The population was selected from the student body of an Indian high school, Haskell Institute, in Kansas. The method of selecting the group of leaders and followers was made through pupil choice, expressed by questionnaires, of five outstanding leaders in each vice-counsel. A vice-counsel is a grouping of students living in one dormitory and is a unit of the total student government organization. Seventy-seven boy and twenty-eight girl leaders selected on the basis of having received one-fourth of the votes in each vice-council. A like number of followers were selected at random from the group receiving less than two votes. Other techniques used in collecting data were interviews with faculty advisors, teacher ratings on personality traits, and self-ratings by the student themselves.

Important among the findings were that a statistically reliable difference in favor of the leaders was found to exist between leaders and followers in friendliness, ambition, personal appearance, perseverance, sociability, confidence, versatility, and originality. Insufficient race difference in leader characteristics was disclosed.

A study of some factors related to leadership was made by Garrison<sup>1</sup> in which he compared the leadership abilities of the membership of two different high schools in Raleigh, North Carolina. Data were gathered on 201 seniors in respect to school average, age, height, weight, father's occupational status, number of children in family, leadership

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<sup>1</sup>K. C. Garrison, "A Study of Some Factors Related to Leadership in High Schools," Peabody Journal of Education, IX (1935), 11-17.



score, and admiration score. Main sources of data were: school records for personal information, Barr Scale<sup>1</sup> for measuring parent occupational status, and pupil choice with weighted scores for determining admiration and leadership scores.

Intercorrelation of the various traits disclosed definite relationship between leadership and scholarship. Since scholarship is directly related to intelligence one would probably conclude that intelligence is operative also in the development of leadership in high schools. A very high relationship between the admiration and leadership scores are indicative of the importance of social and temperamental factors in high school leadership. It appeared from the very low correlation between age and leadership that the youngest students stand the best chance of becoming leaders.

Yeager<sup>2</sup> measured leadership even though his primary interests in the study were focused on the differentiation of high school students with respect to certain selected vocations with particular emphasis on those high school students expressing preference for teaching. In this investigation a large group of high school students were measured on eight qualities, namely, socio-economic status, intelligence, scholarship, leadership, attitude toward teachers, neurotic tendencies, self-sufficiency, and dominance. These measures were then evaluated in terms of certain chosen professions. It was evident from the listing of the eight qualities

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<sup>1</sup>A description of this scale may be found in: Lewis Terman, Genetic Studies of Genius, Vol. I (Stanford University Press, 1925), p. 65.

<sup>2</sup>Tressa C. Yeager, An Analysis of Certain Traits of Selected High School Seniors Interested in Teaching, Teachers College Contribution to Education, No. 660 (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935), p. 87.



above that the procedure determining each student's leadership score became secondary to the main problem of the investigation. Besides the technique for obtaining leadership scores, which will be discussed subsequently, two very significant leadership aspects developed out of Yeager's study. First, and of importance to teacher-training programs, came the suggestion that leadership seems to be a highly desirable trait for those persons considering a profession of teaching. Second, was the outgrowth of a subsequent and noteworthy study by Rummel<sup>1</sup> which was based upon Yeager's original data relative to leadership scores.

Yeager based her measure of leadership upon the extra-curricular offices held by high school students for the four years. Numerical values were assigned to the various offices and judged by a jury of twelve experts in the field of extra-curricular activities. An average of their judgments provided the basis for the leadership scores.<sup>2</sup>

Using the raw data of the leadership scores obtained in Yeager's study, Rummel set about to clarify some of the concepts on leaders and office holding positions. Specifically, she sought to determine to what extent extra-curricular office holding by high school students signified real leadership. Further, an analytical appraisal was made to ascertain the generality of leadership qualities.

As the first step in the analysis of leadership traits and distribution of leadership, Rummel divided the leadership scores into quartiles, designating the highest fourth as "high grade leaders," the

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<sup>1</sup>M. K. Rummel, "Analysis of Leaders among High School Seniors," Journal of Experimental Education, VI (1938), 413-422.

<sup>2</sup>For complete listing of the 101 offices and their numerical values used in leadership score, see Yeager, op. cit., Table III, pp. 17-19.



middle 50 per cent of the distribution as "mediocre leaders," and the lower quartile as "low grade leaders." Then the average score in each of the original measures was computed for each of the three groups of leaders, the total group of leaders, and the non-leaders.

Analysis of these data showed leaders better scholars, slightly more intelligent, and younger than the non-leaders. Boy leaders were more dominant than girl leaders. Girl leaders were more likely to have higher socio-economic backgrounds than girl non-leaders. The highest correlation for the total group was found to be between leadership and scholarship.

Rummelin concludes that office holding is not in itself indicative of leadership. Therefore, more distinction should be made between office holders and leaders. The findings, also, revealed great overlappings among the types of offices held by high school students, especially by students rated high on leadership scores. This with the high percentages of students holding offices in different activities indicates trends toward the generality of leadership traits rather than the specificity of leadership in most high school activities.

Perhaps the only study directly focused on the comparison of leaders and non-leaders in their use of leisure time is contributed by Smith and Nystrom.<sup>1</sup> This study was based on the assumption that since leadership implies interaction between the leader and his follower an investigation of the use of leisure time activities would reveal striking

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<sup>1</sup>M. Smith and W. C. Nystrom, "A Study of Social Participation and of Leisure-time of Leaders and Non-leaders," Journal of Applied Psychology, XII (1937), 251-259.



and highly significant differences between any group of leaders and non-leaders.

The difficulty of obtaining day by day leisure-time records over a period of months for a large number of persons was faced but not solved in the study. Therefore, the method of estimate in the exploratory investigation did not meet with complete success.

The study had two purposes: first, finding the differences between a group of high school leaders and non-leaders in participation in extra-curricular activities together with the differences between the groups in obtaining special recognition in the various activities; and, second, obtaining information on the estimated use of leisure time for the previous year so that leader and non-leader comparisons could be made.

The sampling, consisting of forty leaders and forty non-leaders, was drawn from three high schools in Kansas City on the basis of teacher ratings, each teacher using his own leadership criterion. The two groups, leaders and non-leaders, were asked to fill out questionnaires relative to participation in various activities and to the extent of recognition received in each activity.

It was found that the leaders excelled in recognition and that they exhibited about four times as much participation in extra-curricular activities as the non-leaders. Results from reports of the chief use of leisure time revealed that leaders spend more of their leisure time in activities involving social activity, whereas the non-leaders reported more activities which were of a solitary nature.



Jennings<sup>1</sup> approach to the study of leadership through the use of sociometric tests represents the coming of age of a new procedure in the choice process. The main problem of the study is centered in an analysis of personal inter-relationships in order to discover and measure the emotional and social expansiveness of those individuals within a certain community.

The laboratory for this investigation was the New York State Training School for Girls which ideally met the requirements of a closed community in which the situation limits and makes uniform the opportunities for the forming of relationships.

The final selection of the 133 girls for intensive study resulted in excluding from the total population of 443 all Negro girls and those white girls living in other than cottage units, such as hospitals or farm units. This measure of exclusion was taken to increase uniformity of living conditions. These girls represented a cross section of the social and economically under-privileged of the state population as a whole. Their ages ranged from over twelve to under sixteen years.

All tests were so constructed as to set no limit on the number of choices, to allow individuals equal freedom to express negative choices or rejections, to test concomitantly on all criteria of significance to the subject, and to elicit the subject's expression of preference levels through assigned values. The test included choices in four situations, namely, living together, working together, recreational or leisure time, and studying together. Tests and re-tests were given in December, 1937,

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<sup>1</sup>Helen H. Jennings, Leadership and Isolation (New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1943), 240.



and September, 1938, respectively. The same methods of the first test were duplicated in the re-test.

Final analyses of both tests were made in terms of the social-contact range (social expansiveness) and of the number of individual choices (emotional expansion) of the subject. Important among the findings is a fairly high correlation between the individual choice status on different occasions when the subject remains in the same community. The behavior characteristics of leaders were found to be: cooperative behavior, marked evenness of disposition, initiative and organizational ability, willingness to accept background roles so others may have more prominent recognition, and solicitude for those who needed encouragement.

Unlike many previous studies in leadership, Reals<sup>1</sup> attacks the problem of discovering what characteristics and elements in the home environment distinguishes leaders from non-leaders. The difference principally in this study and others lies in the fact that in the comparison of leaders and non-leaders five traits--age, sex, scholarship, curriculum, and intelligence--are held constant.

The population was drawn from graduating classes in eight high schools in Missouri, Oklahoma, and Illinois. Final selection of the thirty-seven leaders and thirty-seven non-leaders was determined on the combined principal-teacher judgments on such traits as originality, personality, perspective, and ability to inspire rather than on office holding positions.

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<sup>1</sup>Willis H. Reals, "Leadership in the High School," School Review, XLVI (1938), 523-531.



The investigator collected data over a period of five months through the use of controlled interviews with the seventy-four subjects and their parents. Although the nature of the data precluded statistical treatment, it disclosed some significant environmental factors influencing the rise of leadership. Leaders were found to excel non-leaders in participation in out of school activities. The parents of leaders were better educated, more cooperative, and had more diversified interests than parents of non-leaders. The leader group led in neighborhood ratings, home ratings, and home atmosphere. They gave evidence of having had greater influence by a greater number of prominent and successful relatives than the non-leaders.

Roslow<sup>1</sup> gives a report on a nation-wide experiment made in 1938 to determine the validity of the Personality Quotient Test. Specifically, the problem was to see if the test would distinguish leaders from non-leaders, the major assumption being that leaders represent the outstanding personalities, and that leadership among one's fellows in cooperative and competitive social activities would constitute the basic criterion of personality.

A population of students from grades nine through twelve distributed in forty-eight different schools were selected by fifty-four psychologists. The criterion set up for leadership selection was based on fellow-student choices of officership in classes, school societies, athletic teams, clubs, and the school papers. Approximately equal numbers of students from the four levels of high school were in each group so

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<sup>1</sup>S. Roslow, "Nation-wide and Local Validation of the PQ or Personality Test," Journal of Applied Psychology, XXIV (1940), 529-539.



that the selective factor was not operative in the results. The distribution of selections was further determined by including in each unit of twenty subjects five high in leadership and high in scholarship, five high in leadership and low in scholarship, five low in leadership and high in scholarship, and five low in leadership and low in scholarship.

The PQ Test<sup>1</sup> was administered to a group of 1,138 subjects and a comparative analysis between the overall scores in personality and leadership status of all subjects was made. Results showed that the leaders tend to score significantly higher on the PQ Test than those lacking in leadership. A smaller difference was noted in one case of girls. A possible reason given for this was that girls may have less opportunity to show leadership in co-educational schools. It was noted that there was little or no correlation between scholarship and personality. The author concluded that regardless of the abstract definition of personality there is a form of behavior represented by social cooperation and leadership which is measured in varying degrees by all tests falling under the classification of personality tests.

Fauquier and Gilchrist<sup>2</sup> attempted to investigate various aspects of the leadership process in an institution. The Berkshire Industrial Farm is a private home school for problem boys between the ages of twelve and seventeen. Group life is centered about five cottages, each accommodating thirty boys selected according to physical size, age, and social-

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<sup>1</sup>For description of the Personality Quotient Test see H. C. Link, "A Test of Four Personality Traits of Adolescents," Journal of Applied Psychology, XX (1936), 527-534.

<sup>2</sup>William Fauquier and John Gilchrist, "Some Aspects of Leadership in An Institution," Child Development, XIII (1942), 55-64..



emotional maturity. Although the school is designed to receive delinquents, its general plan and facilities resemble those of a good middle class boarding school. Situated in the heart of 1,100 acres in the Berkshire Hills, its buildings scattered over a half square mile with no guards or walls, the institution offers considerable freedom of movement and room for individual expression. Thus, under a somewhat less restricted atmosphere than the average institution it lends itself well to the techniques adopted for this study.

A four-page questionnaire containing twenty-eight item questions were filled out by some 119 subjects. The answers to the questions brought information relative to first, second, and third choices of leaders, the degree of attentiveness of leaders, the opinion as to what makes a good leader, and the expressions of each boy in his friendship with the group. Final selection of leaders by the boy group was based on a point system for first, second, and third choices. Twenty-nine boys credited with 97 per cent of the total points were accepted as leaders.

Staff ratings for each boy were obtained showing the position of each boy for eight personality traits along an "aggressive-normal-submissive" continuum. A section of the boys' questionnaire closely duplicated the staff rating scale so that there were available estimates of the leaders by the boy group which chose them and by the staff who observed them. Of interest among the findings is the discrepancy between the two groups of raters in the selection of leaders. This difference in adult and youth agreement strongly suggests that it is with the socially accepted leader, whom frequently adults do not recognize, that the morale and group control rests and through whom it may most positively be manipulated.



Further findings disclosed that leaders chosen by boys and rated by the staff show considerably more dominance. They are more alert, aggressive, cooperative, show more impulsiveness, excitability and desire to hold the center of attention. However, one should not lose sight of the situational factors involved. Leadership in an institution for delinquent boys may call for greater physical ability, alertness, aggression, excitability and other ascendent expressions than would be necessary among "normal boys" living in society. With 45 per cent of the followers rating leaders as "tough" and "handy with fists," it seems to indicate the intensity of frustration among boys in controlled situations in which displaced aggression may find an outlet in leadership. This finding is in agreement with Dollard<sup>1</sup> that "on occasions displaced aggression may even serve socially approved ends."

Another study in which the leadership scores were based on a point system of extra-curricular activities was made by Reynolds<sup>2</sup> on a group of seniors in Tulsa, Oklahoma. The objective data were gathered from the cumulative records of the graduating class of 1940 on height, achievement test scores, intelligence test scores, student leader records in curricula and extra-class activities. Supplementing this were subjective ratings by teachers on personality, leadership, and "all round promise" items. Of the 888 students selected for study 437 were designated as leaders and 451 as non-leaders. Those subjects earning five or more honor points

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<sup>1</sup>Dollard and Miller, op. cit., p. 42.

<sup>2</sup>F. J. Reynolds, "Factors of Leadership among Seniors of Central High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma," Journal of Educational Research, XXXVII (1944), 356-361.



in scaled leadership positions were placed in the leader group while those with less than five points were grouped as non-leaders. Ten school supervisors had concurred in ranking the leadership items on a five point interval scale, thus determining the weighed value of each item. The list of items included official positions in class or teams, awards, special recognition, officiating, or participating in general assemblies, plays, radio broadcasts, and publications.

The procedure of analysis comprised correlations between the leadership scores and the variables previously named. Further investigation led to a comparison of the means of the non-leaders and leaders, and the upper quartile leaders in the selected traits.

Findings revealed leaders as excelling non-leaders in scholarship, intelligence, and personality traits. Comparisons showed the upper quartile leaders significantly higher than the general group of leaders in scholarship and intelligence. As an important challenge to our school leadership training program comes the fact that a substantial proportion of the non-leaders, also, ranked moderately high in some of the characteristics and traits studied. In general, the findings of the Tulsa study are in agreement with similar investigations.

In order to insure completeness to the study of leadership literature on children, a survey of those studies involving a follow-up of persons holding leadership positions in high school is considered desirable. Such an evaluation would appear to have great significance for planning curricula and extra-curricula experiences in our educational programs. It is with this consideration that several studies evaluating high school leadership in terms of successes in post-school activities are presented.



Shannon<sup>1</sup> reports a study of post school careers of high school leaders as carried on by a graduate seminar group at the Indiana State Teachers College. The problem undertaken involved selecting three groups of high school pupils, a group composed of high school leaders, a group of honor role pupils, and a control group selected at random, and carrying out an investigation which would give some measure of comparison between high school and post school activities.

Two methods were used in selecting the leader group. First, all school records between 1914 and 1919 were analyzed to find pupils who held positions of prominence such as editorships, presidencies of classes, clubs or organizations, and athletic captaincies. Each listed leader was then voted on by ten judges consisting of teachers and principals and teachers who had known the listed leader. All graduates who received five or more positive votes were included in the leader group. The highest ten per cent of each class in scholarship was designated as the scholar group. The random group was made by selecting every tenth pupil from an alphabetical list of each graduating class. The total population of all three groups numbered approximately seventy-five.

Information concerning post-school careers was obtained principally by means of personal interviews with the subjects, their parents or relatives, employers, close friends, and registrars of colleges. Measures for the three groups were then made of occupation, net annual income, academic degrees, publications, and evidences of community leadership.

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<sup>1</sup>J. R. Shannon, "The Post-School Careers of High School Leaders and High School Scholars," School Review, XXXVII (1929), 656-665.



While the findings of this investigation cannot be regarded as conclusive, some very definite tendencies were apparent. The pupils who were leaders in the pupil activities in high school appeared to have made a better showing in most of the respects measured than did the scholar or random groups. It appeared that whatever was required to excel in extra-curricular life of the high school seemed to be the thing that contributed most to success later. In general, the scholars appeared to be the least successful in post-school life. It would seem from this that whatever it is that is necessary for success in the academic program of the high school is not the factor that is required for success in life. This finding seemed to be the most important discovery made by this investigation.

Using a similar plan, Clem and Dodge<sup>1</sup> endeavored to explore the relation of high school leadership and scholarship to post-school successes. The subjects selected for study consisted of 308 graduates of classes 1914 through 1919 of the Rome Free Academy, Rome, New York. Three groups were involved, leader, scholar, and random.

The leader group was determined by means of five judgments. One judgment was based on extra-curricular activities as determined from the annuals for the six years covered by the study. The other four judgments were made by teachers who had known the listed leader. A leader was defined as "a pupil who was prominent in various school activities and whose ability and influence were recognized by other members of his class and by his faculty." Pupils receiving three of the five votes were classed

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<sup>1</sup>Io. M. Clem and S. B. Dodge, "The Relation of High School Leadership and Scholarship to Post-School Success," Peabody Journal of Education, X (1933), 321-329.



as leaders. The scholar group consisted of the six pupils in each graduating class with the highest scholastic average, while the random group was determined by selecting every eighth pupil from an alphabetical list of graduates. The three groups numbered 27, 36, and 38, respectively.

The factors used as criteria for post-school success were: present location, type of residence, education beyond high school, academic degrees, family life, church affiliation, present occupation, income (average for last three years), accumulated wealth, publications, honors, outstanding achievements, community leadership, and number of failures.

Data regarding the post-school successes were obtained by questionnaire and interview. Comparisons of the three groups in the fourteen selected measures revealed that, generally, the high school leader group made a better showing in nearly all the measures concerned than did either the scholar or random groups. However, on community leadership the random group excelled both the leader and the scholar groups. Both of these scores are about equal. Emphasis is again placed on the importance of educational programs which will meet the needs and demands of the times.

A few years later Courtenay<sup>1</sup> pursued the question as to the persistence of high school leadership into post-school years through a study of a selected group of 100 young women graduates of the Lindblom High School between the years 1922-1934 as to their personal, occupational, and social post-school status.

Bases for their selection was an established claim to leadership through records from high school. A control group of 100 young women

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<sup>1</sup>M. E. Courtenay, "Persistence of Leadership," School Review, XLVI (1938), 97-107.



graduates from the same high school and during the same span of years consisted of individuals who had held no elective or appointive positions of leadership, neither had they made any distinctive contribution to the school life nor had they merited any special recognition from the student body or faculty. Pairing of the two groups was made on the basis of socio-economic background, ethnic heritage, scholarship rating, and age at graduation.

Questionnaires and interviews were used to collect data relative to post-school activities. Comparisons were then made of two groups in the selected measures.

On the basis of the information gathered in this study the author felt justified in concluding that the leadership evidenced in early years has a definite tendency to persist, that the qualities which made the members of the leader group outstanding figures in the high school would continue to make them prominent on the college campus and active in the stimulation and direction of community affairs. Pertinent to training for leadership is the closing thought of the author:

...leadership is a persistent force projecting its influence beyond school years and school activities and experiences to the larger services and the more important activities of mature years, and the school may well regard the potentials of leadership worthy of serious consideration and thoughtful consideration.<sup>1</sup>

### Summary

The reviews presented in this chapter have given information on leadership studies at the junior high and senior high levels as to

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 107.



researchers, purposes, methodologies, populations, and significant findings. All studies have been presented in chronological order.

The studies reviewed met the criteria for leadership classification in that each gave evidence that the investigation concerned leadership. The junior high and senior high studies totaled thirty-two. However, if strict division were made there are only four studies confined to the junior high level. Such a division shows a great lack of leadership studies at the junior high level.

There are six studies with extended age range from elementary level through senior high level and two which concern both junior and senior high age groups. Thus the total number of studies investigating junior high age groups is twelve. There would be a total of thirty-five studies at the senior high level, the highest number in any one age level, if all reviews including this age group were combined.

The following chapter will be an analysis and synthesis of the various aspects of leadership as revealed in the research.



## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS AND SYNTHESIS OF RESEARCH ON LEADERSHIP

The frame of reference from which one examines the studies of leadership in children and youth sets the pattern of analysis, thus limiting the considerations to those specific aspects of leadership behavior with which the problem is concerned. Since the present study is built on the assumptions that an individual can be educated for leadership and that it is the purpose of our educational program to produce leaders who will meet the needs of our democratic society, it becomes necessary to examine closely those elements which give rise to leadership in children and youth and to evaluate them in terms of how effectively our educational programs are meeting the demands of a democratic society.

The analysis and synthesis incorporates a general survey of the distribution of studies with emphasis on the frequency of studies over the fifty year period and at the four age levels. Brief examinations of the methodologies used are presented in order to gain knowledge relative to the effectiveness of techniques. Examination of traits and characteristics investigated lead to generalizations relative to leaders and leadership behavior. Situational and environmental aspects investigated warrant an analysis to point up the shift of interest from personal attributes.



### Distribution of Studies

The present study has been concerned with sixty-four studies on leadership in children and youth from the pre-school level through the high school level. The period has covered the years from 1904 through 1954. Twenty-six of these years have yielded leadership studies, while twenty-five have no studies credited to them. The years in which there were no studies reported on leadership in children and youth were: 1905-1919, 1921, 1922, 1936, 1945-1950, and 1953.

As seen in Table 1, the general distribution of the studies shows a scattered pattern. Studies during any one year period ranged from one to seven. Eight years are credited with one study each; six years with two and three studies each; two years with four studies each; one with six studies; and one year with seven studies. The highest number of studies occur in 1933 and 1942 with seven and six studies, respectively. Interestingly enough, these are two of the three years in which studies on all four age levels appear. In 1930 there was also one study reported for each age level.

There were nine leadership studies at the pre-school level. They fall within the years of 1925 and 1942 with no year having more than two in number. The twenty-two elementary leadership studies show the widest chronological spread with Terman's<sup>1</sup> appearing in 1904 and Bedoian's<sup>2</sup> in 1954. However, nineteen of the elementary studies fall between 1923 and 1943, with the highest number, four studies, occurring in 1942. At the junior high level there were four studies dealing with

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<sup>1</sup>Terman, op. cit.

<sup>2</sup>Bedoian, op. cit.



TABLE 1

DISTRIBUTION OF LEADERSHIP STUDIES FROM 1904-1954,  
ACCORDING TO YEAR, AGE-LEVEL, AND INVESTIGATOR<sup>1</sup>

Year	Pre-School	Elementary	Junior High	Senior High	Total
1904		Terman			1
1920			Caldwell-----*	-----*	1
1923		Warner	Nutting	Bennett & Jones	3
1924				Lynn	1
1925	Woolley	Maller			2
1926		Hollingsworth	Caldwell & Wellman		2
1927		Thrasher-----*	-----*	-----* Van Waters	2
1928		Detroit Teachers Study Hsia		Prosh	3
1929	Beaver			Eckert Shannon	3
1930	Goodenough	Levi-----*	-----*	-----* Bellingrath	3

<sup>1</sup>Studies with extended age levels are shown by dotted line with asterisk (-----\*).



TABLE 1 - Continued

Year	Pre-School	Elementary	Junior High	Senior High	Total
1931				S. C. Brown	1
1932		Pinard		Baldwin Wetzel Finch & Carrol	4
1933	Parten Buhler			Clem & Dodge M. Brown	4
1934		Partridge-----*	-----*	Echler Stray	3
1935	Hanfmann	Pigors	Schuler-----*	Flemming M. Smith Garrison Yeager	7
1937	Anderson (2)			Smith & Nystrom	3
1938		Newstetter-----*	-----*	Courtney Reals Remmelin	4
1939		Tyron-----*	-----*		1
1940				Roslow	1



Table 1 - Continued

Year	Pre-School	Elementary	Junior High	Senior High	Total
1941		McGahan Miller & Dollard			2
1942	Chittendon	Ackerson-----* Bonney McCandless Hunt	-----*	-----* Fauquier & Gilchrist	6
1943		Bonney	Kavanagh	Reynolds Jennings	4
1951			Lathan		1
1952		Mason			1
1954		Bedoian			1
Total					64

this age group alone, while six other studies extended from the elementary age level through the high school level. Two additional studies cover both junior and senior high levels, thus making a total of twelve on junior high leadership. The senior high investigations on leadership were made between 1920 and 1945 with the highest number of studies, five, appearing in 1935. The thirty-five experiments at high school level comprise the highest number of any age level. Eight of



these, however, have extended age ranges which would make twenty-seven, in the strictest sense, on the senior high level.

The majority of studies, 93 per cent, fall between 1920 and 1943, thus leaving only four studies at the extremes. Between 1920 and 1930 there were nineteen studies in all. The period of time between 1930 and 1940, yielded thirty studies, or  $47\frac{1}{2}$  per cent, of the total number. Fifteen studies, or 23 per cent, fall between 1941 and 1954. Prior to 1920 there was only one study made pertaining to leadership in children, the pioneer one by Terman<sup>3</sup> in 1904.

This would seem to indicate that until 1920 there was little concern with investigations on leadership in children and youth in the American culture. This might be due, in part, to the inadequacy of techniques up until that time. Investigators were probably preoccupied with problems involving the total area of social behavior rather than specifics, such as the phenomenon of leadership. The barren years from 1905 to 1919 might suggest that leadership through these years was held as a position to be occupied by adults rather than by children. In general, the cultural and technological aspects of a democratic society seem to be sources influencing the increase of studies and interest in leadership during the latter part of the fifty-year period. For example, during the war years and years of depression there seemed to be an increased emphasis in this area.

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<sup>3</sup>Terman, op. cit.



### Methodologies

An analysis of the studies revealed seven techniques most commonly used in investigating leadership among children and youth in the American culture. These could be categorized under such headings as: (1) observation; (2) designation of choice, such as naming, electing, voting, or ranking by peers and/or adults in position to observe and nominate; (3) use of case history; (4) tests of various physical, mental, and psychological aspects; (5) questionnaires; (6) interview; and (7) rating scales. Each of these techniques will be discussed with reference to the effectiveness of their use in various situations.

Observation.--It was found that all nine studies at the pre-school level used observation as the major technique for studying leadership behavior in young children. This might be attributed to several reasons: (1) the interaction at this level consists of behavior involving only two or three individuals, thus making it possible to record simple overt and/or verbal reactions with a high degree of validity; (2) adequate experimental work has been done to establish observation as a valid and reliable technique in studying social behavior of small children;<sup>1</sup> (3) small children do not generally show inhibitions in their activities before adult observers when the proper rapport has been established.

Research at the elementary level employing observation techniques for identifying leadership were: studies of gifted children by

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<sup>1</sup>Dorothy S. Thomas & Associates, Some New Techniques for Studying Social Behavior, Child Development Monograph Series, New York: Teachers College, Columbia University Press, (1929) pp. x-203.



Hollingsworth;<sup>1</sup> experimental situations in which leadership was measured by Miller and Dollard<sup>2</sup> and Terman;<sup>3</sup> studies of free camping situations by Newstetter;<sup>4</sup> and of boys' gangs by Warner<sup>5</sup> and Thrasher.<sup>6</sup>

Jennings,<sup>7</sup> Bennett and Jones,<sup>8</sup> Schuler,<sup>9</sup> and S. Brown<sup>10</sup> used observation in conjunction with other techniques to study leaders and leadership behavior at the junior high, and senior high levels. Thus it was found that observation was employed at each of the age levels; pre-school, elementary, junior high and senior high. However, it was held more favorable as a single technique at the pre-school level. The limitations enforced by lack of maturity would seem to preclude techniques requiring the use of abstract concepts and certain skills not yet developed at the pre-school level. Studies at the upper levels showed that they did not use the observation method singly. It was used in conjunction with one or more than one other technique. This might indicate that the observation technique alone where more than two or three individuals are concerned requires the support of other techniques.

Choice making.—Identification of leaders by such methods as naming, voting, electing, ranking, nominating and appointing were made

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<sup>1</sup>Hollingsworth, op. cit.

<sup>2</sup>Miller and Dollard, op. cit., pp. 21, 182.

<sup>3</sup>Terman, op. cit., p. 428.

<sup>4</sup>Newstetter, op. cit., p. 54.

<sup>5</sup>Warner, op. cit., p. 224.

<sup>6</sup>Thrasher, op. cit., p. 353.

<sup>7</sup>Jennings, op. cit.

<sup>8</sup>Bennett & Jones, op. cit., p. 128.

<sup>9</sup>Schuler, op. cit., p. 414.

<sup>10</sup>S. Brown, op. cit., p. 164.



in 82 per cent of the studies. However, none of these were found at the pre-school level. Ten studies at the elementary level used the choice method, while at the junior and senior high level a total of 43 studies employed some form of this method. Studies using pupil choice such as naming or voting numbered twenty, while in the studies in which leaders were named by persons in position to nominate were listed as eight. From a group of twelve studies using official positions of leadership selection, Brown's<sup>1</sup> and Bellingrath's<sup>2</sup> are noted in examining extra-curricular activities. Finch and Carrol's<sup>3</sup> investigated the "gifted" high school leaders, Levi<sup>4</sup> studied transfer of leadership from the elementary and junior high levels into the high school level, and Fleming<sup>5</sup> used factor analysis of the personality traits of high school leaders. Mason's<sup>6</sup> study was the only one found at the elementary level using a combination of pupil votes and adult opinion to determine leadership dimensions at the fourth grade level. The Detroit Teachers Study<sup>7</sup> depended solely on the naming of friends and leaders by 5,226 elementary students to obtain information concerning those human values recognized and accredited by children in their choices.

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<sup>1</sup>M. Brown, op. cit.      <sup>2</sup>Bellingrath, op. cit., p. 4.

<sup>3</sup>Finch and Carrol, op. cit., p. 447.      <sup>4</sup>Levi, op. cit., p. 136.

<sup>5</sup>Fleming, op. cit., p. 598.      <sup>6</sup>Mason, op. cit., pp. 239, 240.

<sup>7</sup> Detroit Teachers Study, op. cit., p. 12.



Outstanding in the use of the sociometric technique at each age were Bonney's<sup>1</sup> two studies at the elementary level, the study by Caldwell and Wellman<sup>2</sup> at the junior high level, and one by Jennings<sup>3</sup> at the high school level. Three studies with extended age ranges devised choice techniques worthy of noting. They were as follows: Tryon's<sup>4</sup> verbal portrait matching technique in which classmates' opinions of each other were given; Partridge's<sup>5</sup> technique of "five-man-to-man" rating scheme in which each person is rated with every other person; and Newstetter's<sup>6</sup> Personal Preference Technique. Clem and Dodge,<sup>7</sup> Shannon,<sup>8</sup> and Courtney<sup>9</sup> while investigating the transfer of high school leadership into post-school activities based leadership criteria on office holding as gained from records of positions held or from nomination by teachers.

It has been found that methods of choice were favored by the majority of studies on leadership in children and youth. As children progress from age level to age level their opportunities for group participation become enlarged, thus giving more opportunity for choice in a variety of activities. With growth and development come the power of discrimination in making choices and better understanding of those factors necessary for effective group functioning.

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<sup>1</sup>Bonney, Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXIV (1943), 89; Journal of Genetic Psychology, LX (1942), 272.

<sup>2</sup>Caldwell and Wellman, op. cit., p. 1.

<sup>3</sup>Jennings, op. cit., p. 32.

<sup>4</sup>Tryon, op. cit., p. 3.

<sup>5</sup>Partridge, op. cit., p. 64.

<sup>6</sup>Newstetter, op. cit., p. 26.

<sup>7</sup>Clem & Dodge, op. cit., p. 322.

<sup>8</sup>Shannon, op. cit., p. 657.

<sup>9</sup>Courtney, op. cit., p. 97.



Use of Case History.--Ackerson,<sup>1</sup> S. C. Brown,<sup>2</sup> and Van Waters<sup>3</sup> base their leadership studies on analyses of case histories of delinquent children. Ackerson's study is outstanding in its correlations of leadership with over 100 behavior traits. Woolley<sup>4</sup> by use of case history has explored the leadership potentials of one nursery child. Thrasher<sup>5</sup> and Warner<sup>6</sup> have drawn from court records, manuscripts, case studies, and documents of legal and social agencies in their investigations of boys' gangs.

It becomes evident that for atypical behavior of children and youths, the case history method of investigation becomes a valuable means of obtaining valid data. For complete study on one or two subjects the case history, also, merits value. This method was not confined to any one age level. It seems best suited for behavior patterns of a longitudinal nature.

Tests.--A few studies included testing as a part of their investigation into leadership. Two studies employing tests were found at the pre-school level. Nine were found at the elementary level, while ten were found at both junior high and senior high levels. The tests covered many physical, mental, and psychological aspects. Eighteen studies were found to have used intelligence tests, while only five used personality tests. Miscellaneous tests which included measurements on socio-economic status, achievement, and developmental age were

<sup>1</sup>Ackerson, op. cit., pp. 24-50.      <sup>2</sup>S. C. Brown, op. cit., p. 164.

<sup>3</sup>Van Waters, op. cit., pp. 498, 505.      <sup>4</sup>Woolley, op. cit., p. 564.

<sup>5</sup>Thrasher, op. cit., pp. 344, 363.      <sup>6</sup>Warner, op. cit., p. 225.



found in isolated studies. In no case was testing used alone to determine leadership ability.

Questionnaire.—The nature of the questionnaire in most cases confines its use to those subjects who can read and write, therefore, it is not surprising when research revealed that the questionnaire was used most frequently in the three upper age levels. Questionnaires were administered to the subjects and/or adult informants. Terman<sup>1</sup> prepared a questionnaire on twenty-two leadership traits for teachers to use in judging pupil leaders. Smith and Nystrom<sup>2</sup> also used questionnaires for teachers to select the group of leaders. M. Brown<sup>3</sup> and Bellingrath<sup>4</sup> used this procedure with pupils in studying leadership in extra-curricular activities in high school. Kavanagh<sup>5</sup> prepared a questionnaire which was answered by 500 Catholic Girl Scouts of junior high school age. This method was used by Courtney<sup>6</sup> and Clem and Dodge<sup>7</sup> in obtaining data on the transfer of high school leadership into post-school activities.

The questionnaire method like many others was not used singly in the above studies, but seemed to be a major technique in determining the leader groups for these investigations. Weaknesses found in the use of this method seemed to lie in the fact that many questionnaires were poorly constructed and that the validity of these subjective data might be open to question.

<sup>1</sup>Terman, op. cit., p. 433.

<sup>2</sup>Smith and Nystrom, op. cit., p. 254.

<sup>3</sup>M. Brown, op. cit., p. 4.

<sup>4</sup>Bellingrath, op. cit., p. 7.

<sup>5</sup>Kavanagh, op. cit., p. 47.

<sup>6</sup>Courtney, op. cit., p. 98.

<sup>7</sup>Clem & Dodge, op. cit., p. 323.



Interview.—There were found only eleven studies employing the interview method. They were on the elementary, junior high, and senior high levels. In every case the interview method was used in conjunction with other methods to study leaders and/or leadership behavior. Interviews were held with the subjects themselves and in some cases with advisors, principals, teachers, or relatives who were in a position to know the subject. Newstetter<sup>1</sup> used trained researchers to interview the boys in a camp. Through interviews Mason<sup>2</sup> obtained principals', teachers', and playground workers' opinions on child leaders at the elementary level. Warner,<sup>3</sup> Thrasher<sup>4</sup> and S. C. Brown<sup>5</sup> conducted interviews with the subjects and with persons acquainted with the subjects in their studies of gangs and delinquents. M. Brown<sup>6</sup> used pupil interview with the questionnaire to obtain data relative to high school leadership displayed in extra-curricular activities. Reals<sup>7</sup> used a structured interview with seventy-four subjects and their parents to determine characteristics and elements in the home environment which distinguish leaders from non-leaders. Courtney,<sup>8</sup> Clem and Dodge,<sup>9</sup> and Shannon<sup>10</sup> resorted to interviews with relatives to obtain data on post-school activities and leadership of high school graduates when the graduates could not be contacted by questionnaire or in person.

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<sup>1</sup>Clem & Dodge, op. cit., p. 323.      <sup>2</sup>Newstetter, op. cit., p. 62.

<sup>3</sup>Mason, op. cit., p. 239.      <sup>4</sup>Warner, op. cit., p. 225.

<sup>5</sup>Thrasher, op. cit., p. 359.      <sup>6</sup>S. C. Brown, op. cit., p. 164.

<sup>7</sup>M. Brown, op. cit., p. 6.      <sup>8</sup>Reals, op. cit., p. 524.

<sup>9</sup>Courtney, op. cit., p. 105.      <sup>10</sup>Clem & Dodge, op. cit., p. 326.



The personal nature of the interview makes it a more time consuming method, and places it in position for subjective influences. However, when used with other methods it has proved a useful technique at the upper age levels. It has an advantage of revealing pertinent information not readily obtained through other means.

Rating scales.--Rating at the pre-school level was done solely by teachers and observers. Goodenough<sup>1</sup> had observers rate each nursery child on physical beauty, extroversion, and behavior traits. Parten<sup>2</sup> and Anderson<sup>3</sup> used teacher ratings as a means of validating experimental findings. In Chittendon's<sup>4</sup> study the teacher rating and observation records were used together to establish leadership scores.

At the elementary level Terman<sup>5</sup> used teacher opinions on twenty-two questions relative to leadership traits in children. Bonney<sup>6</sup> used teacher ratings on second grade pupils for comparative purposes.

At the junior high level Schuler<sup>7</sup> obtained ratings by teachers, parents, and students to determine dominant-submissive scores on each subject. Tryon<sup>8</sup> obtained ratings by adolescents on those traits admired in their peers. Several studies at the high school level emphasized the use of this technique. Fauquier and Gilchrist<sup>9</sup> obtained ratings by

<sup>1</sup>Goodenough, op. cit., p. 34.      <sup>2</sup>Parten, op. cit., p. 434.

<sup>3</sup>Anderson, Genetic Psychology Monograph, XIX (1937), 355.

<sup>4</sup>Chittendon, op. cit., p. 17.      <sup>5</sup>Terman, op. cit., p. 430.

<sup>6</sup>Bonney, Journal of Genetic Psychology, LX (1942), 294.

<sup>7</sup>Schuler, op. cit., p. 405.      <sup>8</sup>Tryon, op. cit., p. 21.

<sup>9</sup>Fauquier and Gilchrist, op. cit., p. 57.



house mothers and staff on eight personality traits of the subjects. Reynolds<sup>1</sup> used teachers' subjective ratings of personality and leadership traits to aid in the identification of pupil leaders, while Wetzel<sup>2</sup> combined pupil and teacher ratings to determine the kind of leadership that is displayed in the free atmosphere of a modern high school. Fleming<sup>3</sup> recorded teacher ratings on forty traits for each girl and obtained girls' ratings for every other girl in the class with reference to the personality of high school leaders. Garrison<sup>4</sup> used weighted rating scales to determine leadership and admiration scores. Bellingrath<sup>5</sup> employed teacher ratings as a means of validating other findings.

From this analysis, it becomes evident that rating scales were used frequently in establishing validity for experimental and observational findings. This technique was seldom used alone. It was also found that the technique lends itself to investigations of leadership at all age levels. One precaution in its use lies in its subjective nature. Generally speaking, the problem to be solved, the social composition of the population to be examined, and the situational factors involved would seem to determine the techniques best suited to the particular investigation.

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<sup>1</sup>Reynolds, op. cit., p. 357.

<sup>2</sup>Wetzel, op. cit., p. 532.

<sup>3</sup>Fleming, op. cit., p. 598.

<sup>4</sup>Garrison, op. cit., p. 41.

<sup>5</sup>Bellingrath, op. cit., p. 43.



### Traits and Characteristics of Leaders

An analysis of traits and characteristics associated with leadership has been made in order to determine relationships held important by many investigators of leadership in children and youth. It has been found that a majority of studies on leadership have confined their examination to those physical, personal, and social characteristics possessed by pupils occupying positions of leadership. Fewer studies have focused attention on situational aspects and on interaction or group dynamics. Only the most significant influential factors from the physical, mental, personal, and social areas have been examined in this section.

Physical factors.--Examination of the factors falling under this category have been limited to chronological age, height, weight, physique, or energy output, and appearance. While it is evident that the possession of one or all of these traits would not lift one to the position of leadership, a resume of the examinations does seem pertinent to the present study.

The contradictory evidence leaves doubt that there is a true correlation of chronological age to leadership in any degree. However, high correlations of .71 and .67 between chronological age and leadership were found at the pre-school level by Goodenough<sup>1</sup> and Parten,<sup>2</sup> respectively. Anderson<sup>3</sup> found low but positive agreement between age and integrative behavior. Elementary and junior high leaders were found to be of average age by Levi.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Goodenough, op. cit., p. 32.      <sup>2</sup>Parten, op. cit., p. 438.

<sup>3</sup>Anderson, Journal of Social Psychology, VIII (1937), 373.

<sup>4</sup>Levi, op. cit., p. 138.



Bellingrath,<sup>1</sup> Kavanagh,<sup>2</sup> Partridge,<sup>3</sup> Fauquier and Gilchrist,<sup>4</sup> and Nutting<sup>5</sup> showed leaders to be older, while Ackerson<sup>6</sup> and M. Brown<sup>7</sup> did not find leaders and followers to be differentiated on the basis of age. Newstetter's<sup>8</sup> finding that the chronological age of the members of a group has undoubted effect upon the group life seems to indicate that the age factor might be relative to other group aspects. However, in this particular study of boys in camp life, the leaders were found to be older than the non-leaders. In contrast, Rummelin,<sup>9</sup> Garrison,<sup>10</sup> Finch and Carrol,<sup>11</sup> and Baldwin<sup>12</sup> found student leaders more likely to be younger than non-leaders.

Height and weight seemed to show slight trends toward association with leadership. Height did not seem to influence choice of leaders except as the situation demanded it as shown in studies of Garrison,<sup>13</sup> Caldwell and Wellman,<sup>14</sup> Baldwin,<sup>15</sup> and Reynolds.<sup>16</sup> Partridge<sup>17</sup> found a correlation of .43 between height and leadership, while

<sup>1</sup>Bellingrath, op. cit., p. 54.      <sup>2</sup>Kavanagh, op. cit., p. 58.

<sup>3</sup>Partridge, op. cit., p. 61.

<sup>4</sup>Fauquier and Gilchrist, op. cit., p. 58.

<sup>5</sup>Nutting, op. cit., p. 390.      <sup>6</sup>Ackerson, op. cit., p. 129.

<sup>7</sup>M. Brown, op. cit., p. 25.      <sup>8</sup>Newstetter, op. cit., p. 40.

<sup>9</sup>Rummelin, op. cit., p. 418.      <sup>10</sup>Garrison, op. cit., p. 17.

<sup>11</sup>Finch and Carrol, op. cit., p. 478.

<sup>12</sup>Baldwin, op. cit., p. 41.      <sup>13</sup>Garrison, op. cit., p. 16.

<sup>14</sup>Caldwell and Wellman, op. cit., p. 12.

<sup>15</sup>Baldwin, op. cit., p. 40.      <sup>16</sup>Reynolds, op. cit., p. 358.

<sup>17</sup>Partridge, op. cit., p. 61.



Fauquier and Gilchrist,<sup>1</sup> S. Brown,<sup>2</sup> Eichler,<sup>3</sup> and Kavanagh<sup>4</sup> found only slight relationships. Goodenough,<sup>5</sup> Partridge,<sup>6</sup> and Bellingrath,<sup>7</sup> with correlations of .52, .46, and .38, respectively, found positive relationships between weight and leadership. Others agreeing with their findings were Fauquier and Gilchrist,<sup>8</sup> S. Brown,<sup>9</sup> and Kavanagh.<sup>10</sup> Baldwin<sup>11</sup> found slight differences in favor of the leader while Garrison<sup>12</sup> revealed no significant difference in the weight of leaders and non-leaders. Weight, like chronological age and height, seems not to be a single factor influencing leadership, but may influence leadership status under certain situational demands.

On the whole, the studies gave more positive indications that appearance and good physical condition were influential factors in the choice of leadership, especially at certain age levels. A general assumption would seem to be that people who possess a high degree of physical energy and are orderly in dress and personal habits would also be those who would be able to function more effectively in status positions. Appearance did not seem to make any difference in the choice of leaders at the pre-school level, while at the elementary level

<sup>1</sup>Fauquier and Gilchrist, op. cit., p. 58.

<sup>2</sup>S. Brown, op. cit., p. 167.

<sup>3</sup>Eichler, op. cit., p. 37.

<sup>4</sup>Kavanagh, op. cit., p. 61.

<sup>5</sup>Goodenough, op. cit., p. 32.

<sup>6</sup>Partridge, op. cit., p. 61.

<sup>7</sup>Bellingrath, op. cit., p. 54.

<sup>8</sup>Fauquier and Gilchrist, op. cit., p. 58.

<sup>9</sup>S. Brown, op. cit., p. 167.

<sup>10</sup>Kavanagh, op. cit., p. 62.

<sup>11</sup>Baldwin, op. cit., p. 40.

<sup>12</sup>Garrison, op. cit., p. 14.



Bonney<sup>1</sup> found that second graders chose most frequently those pupils possessing attractive personalities. The Detroit Teachers Study<sup>2</sup> revealed that physical appearance ranked higher in the choice of leaders than in the choice of friends. Terman<sup>3</sup> reported teachers as saying child leaders were better looking than non-leaders. Hollingsworth<sup>4</sup> stressed the importance of personal appearance. Ackerson,<sup>5</sup> in a study of delinquent boys and girls, reported correlations between slovenliness and "leading others into mischief" which may indicate relationship between leadership involving socially approved goals and appearance. The Tryon<sup>6</sup> study suggested that appearance is more closely associated with leadership in adolescent boys than in adolescent girls. At the high school level Baldwin,<sup>7</sup> M. Brown,<sup>8</sup> Partridge,<sup>9</sup> Fleming,<sup>10</sup> and Reals<sup>11</sup> found definite relationship between leadership and good appearance.

Good physical condition and energy seemed to be a necessary trait for leaders at the elementary level. Hollingsworth<sup>12</sup> and Terman<sup>13</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Bonney, Journal of Genetic Psychology, LX (1942), 291.

<sup>2</sup>Detroit Teachers Study, op. cit., p. 17.

<sup>3</sup>Terman, op. cit., p. 433.

<sup>4</sup>Hollingsworth, op. cit., p. 134.

<sup>5</sup>Ackerson, op. cit., p. 508.

<sup>6</sup>Tryon, op. cit., pp. 15-18.

<sup>7</sup>Baldwin, op. cit., p. 41.

<sup>8</sup>M. Brown, op. cit., p. 45.

<sup>9</sup>Partridge, op. cit., p. 64.

<sup>10</sup>Fleming, op. cit., p. 64.

<sup>11</sup>Reals, op. cit., p. 528.

<sup>12</sup>Hollingsworth, op. cit., p. 131.

<sup>13</sup>Terman, op. cit., p. 433.



found leaders relatively larger than non-leaders. The Detroit Teachers Study<sup>1</sup> found that physical traits for leaders were valued by elementary children. Thrasher<sup>2</sup> produces evidence that physical prowess appeared to be associated with leadership status in boys' gangs. Nutting<sup>3</sup> found that the junior high girl indicated preference for a leader who was sturdy, well-built and more mature than those she led or directed. Partridge<sup>4</sup> and Fleming<sup>5</sup> found correlations of .62 and .38, respectively, between athletic ability and leadership, while Bellingrath,<sup>6</sup> S. Brown,<sup>7</sup> Stray,<sup>8</sup> Wetzels,<sup>9</sup> and Van Waters<sup>10</sup> characterized high school leaders as having a high rate of "energy-output". Ackerson<sup>11</sup> and Baldwin<sup>12</sup> found that high school leaders did not differ from followers in freedom from physical defects. They did not find health or physical conditions to be factors of leadership.

Mental factors.—The mental factors selected for analysis include intelligence, scholarship, knowledge, insight, judgement, and communication skills. The research disclosed the importance of homogeneity of intelligence of the group. In general, the leader tends to be a little more intelligent than the group he leads, but not too

<sup>1</sup>Detroit Teachers Study, op. cit., p. 17.

<sup>2</sup>Thrasher, op. cit., p. 347.

<sup>3</sup>Nutting, op. cit., p. 390.

<sup>4</sup>Partridge, op. cit., p. 64.

<sup>5</sup>Fleming, op. cit., p. 601.

<sup>6</sup>Bellingrath, op. cit., p. 49.

<sup>7</sup>S. Brown, op. cit., p. 169.

<sup>8</sup>Stray, op. cit., p. 241.

<sup>9</sup>Wetzels, op. cit., p. 533.

<sup>10</sup>Van Waters, op. cit., p. 489.

<sup>11</sup>Ackerson, op. cit., p. 508.

<sup>12</sup>Baldwin, op. cit., p. 41.



advanced. Goodenough,<sup>1</sup> Parten,<sup>2</sup> and Anderson<sup>3</sup> found low but positive correlations of intelligence with leadership among pre-school children. Woolley<sup>4</sup> described her subject as showing high intellectual capacity. The Detroit Teachers Study<sup>5</sup> revealed that leaders were chosen for their mental abilities. However, the possession of mental traits did not take first place in pupil values. Ackerson<sup>6</sup> found a positive correlation of intelligence and "leading others into bad conduct" for both boys and girls. Newstetter<sup>7</sup> found among a group of campers a correlation of .45 between leadership and intelligence. However, this factor along with height and weight did not seem to be the real determinant of leadership as revealed by his study. The highest correlations between the two factors were found by Partridge<sup>8</sup> and Nutting;<sup>9</sup> they were .87 and .90 respectively. Terman<sup>10</sup> found leaders "brighter" than non-leaders.

In an investigation among second, third, and fourth graders, Bonney<sup>11</sup> found low but positive correlations between intelligence and leadership. Maller<sup>12</sup> in studying cooperation and competition among

<sup>1</sup>Goodenough, op. cit., p. 32.      <sup>2</sup>Parten, op. cit., p. 438.

<sup>3</sup>Anderson, The Journal of Social Psychology, VIII (1937), 343; Genetic Psychology Monograph, XIX (1937), 359.

<sup>4</sup>Woolley, op. cit., p. 588.

<sup>5</sup>Detroit Teachers Study, op. cit., p. 18.

<sup>6</sup>Ackerson, op. cit., p. 131.      <sup>7</sup>Newstetter, op. cit., p. 41.

<sup>8</sup>Partridge, op. cit., p. 64.      <sup>9</sup>Nutting, op. cit., p. 390.

<sup>10</sup>Terman, op. cit., p. 433.

<sup>11</sup>Bonney, Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXV (1943), 97.

<sup>12</sup>Maller, op. cit., p. 160.



children found that homogeneity of intelligence rather than level of intelligence is important in cooperative behavior. Finch and Carrol<sup>1</sup> agree with Hollingsworth<sup>2</sup> that intelligence deviating markedly, either above or below the average of the group, might hinder the attainment of leadership positions. This same condition was observed in mental defectives by Warner.<sup>3</sup> She found that older boys with mentalities below normal tend to group themselves with younger boys who have a mental age near their own or slightly above. Fauquier and Gilchrist,<sup>4</sup> Van Waters,<sup>5</sup> Kavanagh,<sup>6</sup> Bellingrath,<sup>7</sup> and S. Brown<sup>8</sup> reported relationships either too low or too varied to place confidence in the fact that intelligence as a factor in itself might insure leadership. Slight relationships were found by Rummelin,<sup>9</sup> Mason,<sup>10</sup> Reynolds,<sup>11</sup> and M. Brown.<sup>12</sup> This might indicate that intelligence may be associated with other characteristics which contribute to a person's ability to function as a leader.

<sup>1</sup>Finch and Carrol, op. cit., p. 480.

<sup>2</sup>Hollingsworth, op. cit., p. 131.      <sup>3</sup>Warner, op. cit., p. 235.

<sup>4</sup>Fauquier and Gilchrist, op. cit., p. 58.

<sup>5</sup>Van Waters, op. cit., p. 500.      <sup>6</sup>Kavanagh, op. cit., p. 84.

<sup>7</sup>Bellingrath, op. cit., p. 53.      <sup>8</sup>S. Brown, op. cit., p. 169.

<sup>9</sup>Rummelin, op. cit., p. 418.      <sup>10</sup>Mason, op. cit., p. 243.

<sup>11</sup>Reynolds, op. cit., p. 358.      <sup>12</sup>M. Brown, op. cit., p. 49.



Since evidence indicates that leaders are found to be more intelligent on the average than those led, it follows that their scholastic ratings should be higher. Evidence tends to support this belief. At the elementary level Levi,<sup>1</sup> Terman,<sup>2</sup> Mason,<sup>3</sup> and Bonney<sup>4</sup> found leaders better than average in their scholastic work. Ackerson,<sup>5</sup> with negative correlations, found that generally the leaders who were referred to the clinic had very poor scholastic records. A few studies at the high school level produced evidence that there is no significant relationship between leadership and scholarship; however, the majority of studies found that leaders excelled non-leaders in scholarship. On the other hand, conflicting evidence comes with the fact that many pupils having high intellectual capacities and high scholastic ratings have never occupied positions of leadership, which may suggest that intelligence and scholarship account for only a part of the composite required for leadership status.

Knowledge, judgement, and insight seem to be a part of the general intelligence displayed in leadership activities. Pupils with the knowledge and ability to get things done seemed usually those who occupied leadership positions. Thrasher<sup>6</sup> found that the leader must "know the ropes -- must possess knowledge of some special techniques

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<sup>1</sup>Levi, op. cit., p. 138.

<sup>2</sup>Terman, op. cit., p. 432.

<sup>3</sup>Mason, op. cit., p. 247.

<sup>4</sup>Bonney, Journal of Genetic Psychology, LX (1942), 285;  
Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXIV (1943), 97.

<sup>5</sup>Ackerson, op. cit., p. 508.

<sup>6</sup>Thrasher, op. cit., p. 351.



useful to the gang." The leader of the gang was described as a "man of action who makes rapid judgment and is resolute in backing it." Caldwell<sup>1</sup> found the most important abilities ascribed to leaders were intelligence and practical knowledge relative to the situation for which they were chosen as leaders. Hanfmann<sup>2</sup> described the "social leader" as one who sizes up the situation quickly and uses diplomatic judgment in handling the situation. Mason<sup>3</sup> characterized leaders as having definite organizational and directive ability indicating the possession of knowledge and judgment. Fleming,<sup>4</sup> Bennett and Jones,<sup>5</sup> Baldwin,<sup>6</sup> Bellingrath,<sup>7</sup> Caldwell and Wellman,<sup>8</sup> Fauquier and Gilchrist,<sup>9</sup> and S. Brown<sup>10</sup> described leaders as possessing judgment, common sense and insight, and as being keenly alert to the physical and social factors involving situations of leadership.

Communication has been found to be basic to all effective leadership, and the capacity for ready communication is one of the significant skills associated with leadership. Goodenough<sup>11</sup> found a

<sup>1</sup>Caldwell, op. cit., p. 8.      <sup>2</sup>Hanfmann, op. cit., p. 409.

<sup>3</sup>Mason, op. cit., p. 234.      <sup>4</sup>Fleming, op. cit., p. 601.

<sup>5</sup>Bennett and Jones, op. cit., p. 128.

<sup>6</sup>Baldwin, op. cit., p. 41.      <sup>7</sup>Bellingrath, op. cit., p. 49.

<sup>8</sup>Caldwell and Wellman, op. cit., p. 4.

<sup>9</sup>Fauquier and Gilchrist, op. cit., p. 61.

<sup>10</sup>S. Brown, op. cit., p. 50.

<sup>11</sup>Goodenough, op. cit., p. 32.



correlation of .61 between leadership and "talkativeness" among nursery children. Chevaleva-Janovskaia and Sylla<sup>1</sup> supported this with their finding that child leaders are characterized by longer duration of verbal excitation. Woolley<sup>2</sup> found her subject had an unusual command of language. Terman's<sup>3</sup> research agreed with this finding. Tryon<sup>4</sup> obtained evidences that twelve and fifteen year old boys and girls believed that ability to communicate influenced opportunities for leadership. Partridge,<sup>5</sup> Baldwin,<sup>6</sup> Fleming,<sup>7</sup> and M. Smith<sup>8</sup> found that leadership was associated with tone of voice and interesting conversation. Eichler,<sup>9</sup> however, reported a negative relationship between voice and leadership. These findings might suggest that the tone of voice as such does not have as much influence as the ability to communicate ideas or to express the feelings and desires of the group.

Personal factors.—Among the personality traits which have seemed important to leadership are originality, self-confidence, adaptability and responsibility. While originality and self-confidence seem to be of a more personal nature, adaptability and responsibility would seem to contain some of the social components of interaction with

<sup>1</sup>Chevaleva-Janovskaia and Sylla, op. cit., p. 153.

<sup>2</sup>Woolley, op. cit., p. 591.

<sup>3</sup>Terman, op. cit., p. 433.

<sup>4</sup>Tryon, op. cit., pp. 15-18.

<sup>5</sup>Partridge, op. cit., p. 79.

<sup>6</sup>Baldwin, op. cit., p. 41.

<sup>7</sup>Fleming, op. cit., p. 601.

<sup>8</sup>M. Smith, op. cit., p. 421.

<sup>9</sup>Eichler, op. cit., p. 37.



a group. At the pre-school level Hanfmann<sup>1</sup> and Woolley<sup>2</sup> found that accepted leaders showed originality by introducing and suggesting various activities in play. Stray,<sup>3</sup> and Baldwin<sup>4</sup> listed originality and creativeness as traits necessary for leadership. Fleming<sup>5</sup> and Bellingrath<sup>6</sup> found correlations of .38 and .60, respectively, between leadership and originality.

Mason<sup>7</sup> found that fourth grade leaders were more self-confident than followers. Tryon<sup>8</sup> found that adolescent leaders were also self-confident before class members and adults. Bellingrath<sup>9</sup> reported a correlation of .58 between leadership and self-confidence. Kavanagh<sup>10</sup> described Girl Scout leaders as self-reliant. High school leaders were found to possess self-trust and a confident manner by Bennett and Jones,<sup>11</sup> Van Waters,<sup>12</sup> and M. Smith.<sup>13</sup> Although most of the studies were uniform in their positive relationships between self-confidence and leadership, Rummelin<sup>14</sup> did not find that self-confidence scores on the Bernreuter Inventory would differentiate between leaders and non-leaders.

<sup>1</sup>Hanfmann, op. cit., p. 408.

<sup>2</sup>Woolley, op. cit., p. 569.

<sup>3</sup>Stray, op. cit., p. 241.

<sup>4</sup>Baldwin, op. cit., p. 41.

<sup>5</sup>Fleming, op. cit., p. 601.

<sup>6</sup>Bellingrath, op. cit., p. 49.

<sup>7</sup>Mason, op. cit., p. 242.

<sup>8</sup>Tryon, op. cit., pp. 15-18.

<sup>9</sup>Bellingrath, op. cit., p. 49.

<sup>10</sup>Kavanagh, op. cit., p. 93.

<sup>11</sup>Bennett and Jones, op. cit., p. 128.

<sup>12</sup>Van Waters, op. cit., p. 502.

<sup>13</sup>M. Smith, op. cit., p. 420.

<sup>14</sup>Rummelin, op. cit., p. 419.



Hanfmann<sup>1</sup> found that leaders at the pre-school level showed adaptability by meeting situations of resistance or compliance with equal facility. Eichler<sup>2</sup> and Fleming<sup>3</sup> reported positive correlations between adaptability and leadership. Caldwell and Wellman,<sup>4</sup> and Pinard<sup>5</sup> also found that the ability to adjust to new situations seemed to be associated with leadership capacity. Here the situational aspect carries as much weight as the trait of adaptability in leadership functioning.

Since responsibility implies concern or regard for something or someone, it would seem to depend upon a given situation as much as upon any innate personal trait. The problem of semantics also arises when many different terms are used to describe the same trait or type of behavior. Thus responsibility frequently was described by such terms as trustworthiness, dependability, or sense of duty. The Detroit Teachers Study<sup>6</sup> suggested that responsibility is a pre-requisite for achievement in many kinds of situations. Bellingrath<sup>7</sup> and Partridge<sup>8</sup> reported correlations of .53 and .87, respectively, between a sense of duty or dependability and leadership. Other authors discovering positive relationship between dependability and leadership were

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<sup>1</sup>Hanfmann, op. cit., p. 405.    <sup>2</sup>Eichler, op. cit., p. 37.

<sup>3</sup>Fleming, op. cit., p. 601.

<sup>4</sup>Caldwell and Wellman, op. cit., p. 6.

<sup>5</sup>Pinard, op. cit., p. 14.

<sup>6</sup>Detroit Teachers Study, op. cit., p. 18.

<sup>7</sup>Bellingrath, op. cit., p. 49.    <sup>8</sup>Partridge, op. cit., p. 64.



Fleming<sup>1</sup> and Baldwin.<sup>2</sup> Nutting,<sup>3</sup> M. Smith,<sup>4</sup> and Mason<sup>5</sup> found trustworthiness was a valued trait of leaders, while Wetsel,<sup>6</sup> Stray,<sup>7</sup> Caldwell,<sup>8</sup> Jennings,<sup>9</sup> Van Waters,<sup>10</sup> and Pinard<sup>11</sup> listed responsibility as a necessary trait for high school leadership. Interestingly enough, Ackerson<sup>12</sup> from his study on problem children reported a slight correlation between irresponsibility and leadership. These findings seem to emphasize the need for clarification of the type of leadership described under varying circumstances.

Other traits closely associated with leadership ability have been designated as initiative, persistence, and ambition. Hanfmann<sup>13</sup> and Woolley<sup>14</sup> found pre-school leaders showing initiative in leading cooperative plan and in suggesting independent plans for various games. Pinard<sup>15</sup> in a study of problem children discovered that the leaders were reliable, self-controlled and persistent. In a study of delinquent leaders, Van Waters<sup>16</sup> found them to be resourceful in leading others into bad conduct. Bellingrath<sup>17</sup> established a positive

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<sup>1</sup>Fleming, op. cit., p. 601.

<sup>2</sup>Baldwin, op. cit., p. 41.

<sup>3</sup>Nutting, op. cit., p. 390.

<sup>4</sup>M. Smith, op. cit., p. 421.

<sup>5</sup>Mason, op. cit., p. 242.

<sup>6</sup>Wetsel, op. cit., p. 534.

<sup>7</sup>Stray, op. cit., p. 241.

<sup>8</sup>Caldwell, op. cit., p. 10.

<sup>9</sup>Jennings, op. cit., p. 147.

<sup>10</sup>Van Waters, op. cit., p. 502.

<sup>11</sup>Pinard, op. cit., p. 14.

<sup>12</sup>Ackerson, op. cit., p. 508.

<sup>13</sup>Hanfmann, op. cit., p. 409.

<sup>14</sup>Woolley, op. cit., p. 57.

<sup>15</sup>Pinard, op. cit., p. 16.

<sup>16</sup>Van Waters, op. cit., p. 498.

<sup>17</sup>Bellingrath, op. cit., p. 49.



relationship between leadership and will power, the desire to excel, and persistence. Baldwin<sup>1</sup> found that an ambitious positive nature accompanied male leadership in high school. According to Wetzel,<sup>2</sup> Roslow,<sup>3</sup> Stray,<sup>4</sup> Bennett and Jones,<sup>5</sup> and Jennings,<sup>6</sup> youth leaders excel non-leaders in initiative. In general, the research findings indicate that the ability to initiate an activity and help a group move toward its goal is necessary for effective leadership on any age level.

The relationship of leadership to dominance, extroversion-introversion, and emotional control stimulated the interest of many investigators. The lack of agreement on the meaning of dominance has resulted in controversial findings. As revealed in the studies, experimenters have defined dominant behavior as leadership behavior or the opposite of leadership behavior. Others have thought of leadership along a dominance-submissive continuum. Most authors, however, have shown leadership to be a form of social control. Hanfmann<sup>7</sup> found that dominance did not mean the same thing in all cases. He also found that those who dominated were rejected by other members of the group. Preference was shown for the "social leader" who did not use domination as power. Chittendon<sup>8</sup> found that dominant behavior was fairly typical of some pre-school children who were striving for status positions. She differentiated between dominant behavior and cooperative behavior. Anderson<sup>9</sup> spoke of leadership as integrative behavior which he defined

<sup>1</sup>Baldwin, op. cit., p. 41.      <sup>2</sup>Wetzel, op. cit., p. 534.

<sup>3</sup>Roslow, op. cit., p. 534.      <sup>4</sup>Stray, op. cit., p. 241.

<sup>5</sup>Bennett and Jones, op. cit., p. 128.      <sup>6</sup>Jennings, op. cit., p. 148.

<sup>7</sup>Hanfmann, op. cit., p. 410.      <sup>8</sup>Chittendon, op. cit., p. 21.

<sup>9</sup>Anderson, Genetic Psychology Monograph, XIX (1937), p. 408.



as the opposite of dominative behavior. However, his explanation of the difference is typical of the semantic involvement in many of the terms describing leadership behavior. Pigors<sup>1</sup> maintained that dominant behavior and leadership behavior are different forms of social control. Thrasher<sup>2</sup> reported that the natural leader in a gang may not be elected for an office, but his dominance of the gang is none the less real. Schuler<sup>3</sup> found that with an increase in age there appeared a decrease of extremes in either dominance or submissiveness. Tryon<sup>4</sup> found dominance to be characteristic of adolescent leaders. Although Van Waters<sup>5</sup> and S. Brown<sup>6</sup> found that delinquent girls possessed dominance or "power to hold" others, the final evidence in their studies concerning the relationship between leadership and dominance was contradictory. While Eichler<sup>7</sup> found no difference between leaders and non-leaders in dominance, Rummelin<sup>8</sup> disclosed slight trends toward dominance among boy leaders. Fauquier and Gilchrist,<sup>9</sup> in a study of problem boys, found that dominance, aggression, boldness, impulsiveness, excitability, and alertness were displayed most frequently in the personality of the leader. These findings would seem to indicate that environmental or situational influences tend to set the pattern for the type of leadership behavior shown.

It is generally agreed that leaders must have a sincere concern for people. The trait described as extroversion by many authors takes the form

<sup>1</sup>Pigors, op. cit.      <sup>2</sup>Thrasher, op. cit., p. 345.

<sup>3</sup>Schuler, op. cit., p. 413.      <sup>4</sup>Tryon, op. cit., pp. 15-17.

<sup>5</sup>Van Waters, op. cit., p. 498.      <sup>6</sup>S. Brown, op. cit., p. 175.

<sup>7</sup>Eichler, op. cit., p. 37.      <sup>8</sup>Rummelin, op. cit., p. 418.

<sup>9</sup>Fauquier and Gilchrist, op. cit., p. 63.



of verbal and overt expressions toward members of the group. Woolley<sup>1</sup> describes the leader by saying, "She possessed a social nature and was interested in persons more than in things." Mason<sup>2</sup> found leaders with a group awareness and definite feelings of responsibility toward the group. S. Brown<sup>3</sup> defines extroversion as a general "turning out" of attention which characterizes the leaders among delinquent girls. Caldwell and Wellman<sup>4</sup> reported extroversion among girl leaders in various school activities. The correlation of .46 found by Goodenough<sup>5</sup> was the highest correlation reported between leadership and extroversion. Fauquier and Gilchrist<sup>6</sup> found leaders less withdrawn than non-leaders, while Bellingrath<sup>7</sup> and Rummelin<sup>8</sup> found no significant difference between leaders and non-leaders in extroversion-introversion traits. In view of the conflicting evidence it would appear that leaders cannot be described with any degree of uniformity in terms of extroversion-introversion.

Aspects of emotional control were examined by over half of the studies in leadership. Hanfmann<sup>9</sup> found the leader able to control and resolve difficulties with little show of emotional expression. Goodenough<sup>10</sup> found a positive correlation between leadership and laughter, which seemed

<sup>1</sup>Woolley, op. cit., p. 574.      <sup>2</sup>Mason, op. cit., p. 243.

<sup>3</sup>S. Brown, op. cit., p. 169.

<sup>4</sup>Caldwell and Wellman, op. cit., p. 3.

<sup>5</sup>Goodenough, op. cit., p. 32.

<sup>6</sup>Fauquier and Gilchrist, op. cit., p. 62.

<sup>7</sup>Bellingrath, op. cit., p. 53.

<sup>8</sup>Rummelin, op. cit., p. 419.

<sup>9</sup>Hanfmann, op. cit., p. 409.

<sup>10</sup>Goodenough, op. cit., p. 32.



to indicate a cheerful, happy disposition. The Detroit Teachers Study<sup>1</sup> found children chose leaders because of their emotional control. This trait was considered more important when selecting leaders than when selecting friends. Emotional stability and a sense of humor were reported by Terman<sup>2</sup> and Mason<sup>3</sup> as characteristic of elementary school leaders. On the second grade level Bonney<sup>4</sup> found leaders avoided quarrels and fights. Stability, self-control, self-adjustment, and self-composure were reported as characteristics of leaders by Bellingrath,<sup>5</sup> Baldwin,<sup>6</sup> Wetzel,<sup>7</sup> Kavanagh,<sup>8</sup> and Caldwell and Wellman.<sup>9</sup> Fauquier and Gilchrist,<sup>10</sup> however, found leaders more excitable and impulsive. Data from Fleming's<sup>11</sup> study revealed a negative correlation between emotional control and leadership. Tryon<sup>12</sup> found a higher correlation between fighting and leadership among twelve year old boys than among fifteen year old boys, which might indicate the influence of age level concepts. Twelve year old boys may hold the idea that leadership involves "taking up" for one's interests. It might be interpreted from the evidence presented in the studies that the relationship between leadership and emotional control is relative to

<sup>1</sup>Detroit Teachers Study, op. cit., p. 17.

<sup>2</sup>Terman, op. cit., p. 433.      <sup>3</sup>Mason, op. cit., p. 243.

<sup>4</sup>Bonney, Journal of Genetic Psychology, LX (1942), p. 291.

<sup>5</sup>Bellingrath, op. cit., p. 49.      <sup>6</sup>Baldwin, op. cit., p. 41.

<sup>7</sup>Wetzel, op. cit., p. 534.      <sup>8</sup>Kavanagh, op. cit., p. 106.

<sup>9</sup>Caldwell and Wellman, op. cit., p. 6.

<sup>10</sup>Fauquier and Gilchrist, op. cit., p. 64.

<sup>11</sup>Fleming, op. cit., p. 601.      <sup>12</sup>Tryon, op. cit., pp. 15-18.



the situation and the values held by different age groups.

Social Factors.--The social factors selected for analysis involve social activities and social skills. Since leadership could not exist without participation one would expect to find close relationship between the two. One of the highest correlations, .97, between leadership and participation was found by Parten.<sup>1</sup> Goodenough<sup>2</sup> found a low but positive correlation between physical activity and leadership. Hanfmann<sup>3</sup> found leaders to be very much involved with social expansion through play activities. Woolley<sup>4</sup> describes her leader as having an excessively social nature. At the elementary level, Mason<sup>5</sup> and Terman<sup>6</sup> found that leaders engaged in more class and playground activities. They were more active, daring, and adventurous than followers. Thrasher's<sup>7</sup> data revealed a high rate of activity in leaders of boys' gangs.

M. Brown,<sup>8</sup> Courtenay,<sup>9</sup> Roslow,<sup>10</sup> Reals,<sup>11</sup> Reynolds,<sup>12</sup> Smith and Nystron,<sup>13</sup> Bellingrath,<sup>14</sup> and Rummelin<sup>15</sup> disclosed evidence that leaders excel non-leaders in the number of activities, the variety of activities, and the extent to which they participated. A high per cent of high school leadership studies have based their leadership criteria upon participation

<sup>1</sup>Parten, op. cit., p. 438.      <sup>2</sup>Goodenough, op. cit., p. 32.

<sup>3</sup>Hanfmann, op. cit.      <sup>4</sup>Woolley, op. cit., p. 579.

<sup>5</sup>Mason, op. cit., p. 243.      <sup>6</sup>Terman, op. cit., p. 433.

<sup>7</sup>Thrasher, op. cit., p. 344.      <sup>8</sup>M. Brown, op. cit., p. 112.

<sup>9</sup>Courtney, op. cit., p. 100.      <sup>10</sup>Roslow, op. cit., p. 532.

<sup>11</sup>Reals, op. cit., p. 528.      <sup>12</sup>Reynolds, op. cit., p. 357.

<sup>13</sup>Smith and Nystron, op. cit., p. 259.

<sup>14</sup>Bellingrath, op. cit.,      <sup>15</sup>Rummelin, op. cit., p. 416.



and/or office holding in extra-curricular activities. This trend has caused concern as to whether mere office holding constitutes real leadership and whether some of these studies were really measuring leadership.

Sociability, cooperation, diplomacy, and tact have been suggested by some investigators as elements of social skills. Goodenough<sup>1</sup> reported a rather high correlation, .98, between sociability and leadership. Prosh,<sup>2</sup> M. Smith,<sup>3</sup> Fleming,<sup>4</sup> and Jennings,<sup>5</sup> also found that sociability was closely associated with leadership ability. Hanfmann,<sup>6</sup> Parten,<sup>7</sup> Stray,<sup>8</sup> and Wetzel<sup>9</sup> listed diplomacy and tact as characteristics of leaders. Bonney<sup>10</sup> found an expression of social skill in the leader's ability to appear before a group with confidence. Tryon<sup>11</sup> reported correlation between friendliness and leadership. Ackerson<sup>12</sup> stated that both leaders and followers were influenced by gang membership. His work points up again the problem of semantics. Is follower the opposite of leader? He suggested that some other term would better express the opposite of leader.

Hanfmann,<sup>13</sup> Baldwin,<sup>14</sup> and Caldwell<sup>15</sup> reported that leaders are cooperative and skilled in enlisting the cooperation of others. Woolley<sup>16</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Goodenough, op. cit.      <sup>2</sup>Prosh, op. cit., p. 267.

<sup>3</sup>M. Smith, op. cit., p. 421.      <sup>4</sup>Fleming, op. cit., p. 601.

<sup>5</sup>Jennings, op. cit.      <sup>6</sup>Hanfmann, op. cit., p. 409.

<sup>7</sup>Parten, op. cit., p. 430.      <sup>8</sup>Stray, op. cit., p. 241.

<sup>9</sup>Wetzel, op. cit., p. 534.

<sup>10</sup>Bonney, Journal of Genetic Psychology, LX (1942), p. 290.

<sup>11</sup>Tryon, op. cit., pp. 15-18.      <sup>12</sup>Ackerson, op. cit., p. 507.

<sup>13</sup>Hanfmann, op. cit., p. 409.      <sup>14</sup>Baldwin, op. cit., p. 41.

<sup>15</sup>Caldwell, op. cit., p. 10.      <sup>16</sup>Woolley, op. cit., p. 579.



found that, with training, her child leader developed a more cooperative attitude. Bonney<sup>1</sup> and Mason<sup>2</sup> discovered that second and fourth grade leaders were cooperative in group endeavors. Nutting<sup>3</sup> showed that junior high girl leaders possessed ability to work with groups in cooperative enterprises. Fauquier and Gilchrist,<sup>4</sup> Bennett and Jones,<sup>5</sup> Wetzel,<sup>6</sup> and Jennings<sup>7</sup> reported high ratings in cooperation among youth leaders.

Other social skills usually associated with leadership are popularity and prestige. The studies revealed that leaders seem to possess some amount of prestige and popularity in being able to supply means or aid unavailable to the followers. Thrasher<sup>8</sup> stated that the gang leader holds prestige in the group because he presents the boys with patterns of behavior which are agreeable to them. Mason<sup>9</sup> found that fourth grade leaders gained prestige through dependability and ability to finish work through resourcefulness. Dollard and Miller,<sup>10</sup> Ackerson,<sup>11</sup> Tryon,<sup>12</sup> Nutting,<sup>13</sup> and Bellingrath<sup>14</sup> found evidences that prestige and popularity are closely associated with leadership. Garrison<sup>15</sup> found that leaders have certain qualities which make them objects of admiration.

<sup>1</sup>Bonney, Journal of Genetic Psychology, LX (1942), p. 291.

<sup>2</sup>Mason, op. cit., p. 243. <sup>3</sup>Nutting, op. cit., p. 390.

<sup>4</sup>Fauquier and Gilchrist, op. cit., p. 60.

<sup>5</sup>Bennett and Jones, op. cit., p. 126.

<sup>6</sup>Wetzel, op. cit., p. 534. <sup>7</sup>Jennings, op. cit., p. 147.

<sup>8</sup>Thrasher, op. cit., p. 354. <sup>9</sup>Mason, op. cit., p. 242.

<sup>10</sup>Dollard and Miller, op. cit., p. 182. <sup>11</sup>Ackerson, op. cit., p. 507.

<sup>12</sup>Tryon, op. cit., pp. 15-18. <sup>13</sup>Nutting, op. cit., p. 390.

<sup>14</sup>Bellingrath, op. cit., p. 49. <sup>15</sup>Garrison, op. cit., p. 16.



In summarizing, the research revealed a diversity of opinion relative to the traits and characteristics necessary for leadership. Although the trait and characteristic approach to leadership pertains predominantly to personal qualities, many of the characteristics investigated have implied interaction with others. They are, therefore, dependent upon certain situational factors. Indications were that while some traits and characteristics might seem to influence leadership more than others, the final determinants would lie within the control of various situational aspects, such as group membership, goals, or norms.

#### Situational and Environmental Aspects

Knowledge of the social composition of groups contributes significantly to an understanding of the various aspects of leadership behavior at all age levels. The term social composition as used in this analysis refers to specific groupings of children and youth. These may be characterized by age, sex, school, grade, institution, gang, club scouts, campers, or special service groups which might indicate other characteristics such as distinctive action patterns, common beliefs or goals. For example, a group of junior high Catholic Girl Scouts would be expected to have different action patterns, goals, and a way of achieving those goals from a group of elementary age mentally deficient boys living in a closed society.

Research on leadership in children and youth in the American culture revealed many different classifications. These seemed to fall under two general headings: school and non-school groupings. Both had many sub-classifications.

In the school type were sub-groupings of grades, clubs, homerooms, physical education or gymnasium classes, and numerous co-curricular and



extra-curricular activity groups. Approximately twenty-two studies were found at the junior and senior high levels dealing with boys' groups, girls' groups, or mixed groups. Nutting<sup>1</sup> limited his study to a girls' junior high gymnasium class, while Baldwin<sup>2</sup> studied factors usually associated with high school male leadership. The majority of the school type studies investigated leadership in extra-curricular group activities. Outstanding among these were studies by M. Brown,<sup>3</sup> Bellingrath,<sup>4</sup> and Rummelin.<sup>5</sup> Clem and Dodge,<sup>6</sup> Courtney,<sup>7</sup> and Shannon<sup>8</sup> based leadership criteria on participation in extra-curricular high school activities when measuring post-school leadership. Eight studies at the elementary level dealt with social membership at one or more grade levels. McGahan<sup>9</sup> and Hsia<sup>10</sup> confined their leadership investigation to grades four through eight, while Bonney<sup>11</sup> explored pupil membership of grades two, three, and four. Mason<sup>12</sup> and Bedoian<sup>13</sup> appeared to be the only two investigators using only one grade level, the fourth grade and sixth grade, respectively.

The non-school type of investigation included gangs, scouts, campers, Catholic Scouts, delinquents, mental defectives, inmates of institutions, individuals with behavior problems, free play groups, and gifted

<sup>1</sup>Nutting, op. cit., p. 387.      <sup>2</sup>Baldwin, op. cit., p. 39.

<sup>3</sup>M. Brown, op. cit.      <sup>4</sup>Bellingrath, op. cit., p. 7.

<sup>5</sup>Rummelin, op. cit., p. 417.      <sup>6</sup>Clem and Dodge, op. cit.

<sup>7</sup>Courtney, op. cit., p. 105.      <sup>8</sup>Shannon, op. cit., p. 657.

<sup>9</sup>McGahan, op. cit., p. 37.      <sup>10</sup>Hsia, op. cit., p. 5

<sup>11</sup>Bonney, Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXIV (1943), p. 89.

<sup>12</sup>Mason, op. cit., p. 239.      <sup>13</sup>Bedoian, op. cit., p. 513.



children. Groups of delinquent girls were studied by Van Waters,<sup>1</sup> S. Brown,<sup>2</sup> and Jennings.<sup>3</sup> McCandless<sup>4</sup> investigated aspects of leadership among mentally deficient boys of elementary age level. Only two studies appeared on the gifted child. One was by Hollingsworth<sup>5</sup> at the elementary level, and the other was by Finch and Carrol<sup>6</sup> at the high school level.

Leadership which arises in natural camping situations was investigated by Stray,<sup>7</sup> who examined leadership among high school girl campers, and Hunt<sup>8</sup> whose interest was in a boys' camping group at the elementary level. Partridge's<sup>9</sup> and Newstetter's<sup>10</sup> studies which had extended age ranges described groups of campers and Boy Scouts. Kavanagh<sup>11</sup> investigated leadership among junior high Catholic Girl Scouts.

The phenomenon of leadership which takes place in natural gangs was explored by Thrasher,<sup>12</sup> while Warner<sup>13</sup> studied the gang phenomenon among mentally deficient boys, of elementary school age, living in a closed society. Beaver,<sup>14</sup> at the pre-school level, examined what was termed "pseudo-gang" leadership behavior. Groups described as having

<sup>1</sup>Van Waters, op. cit., p. 498.      <sup>2</sup>S. Brown, op. cit., p. 164.

<sup>3</sup>Jennings, op. cit., p. 32.      <sup>4</sup>McCandless, op. cit., p. 529.

<sup>5</sup>Hollingsworth, op. cit., p. 130.

<sup>6</sup>Finch and Carrol, op. cit., p. 476.

<sup>7</sup>Stray, op. cit., p. 241.      <sup>8</sup>Hunt, op. cit., p. 34.

<sup>9</sup>Partridge, op. cit., p. 1.      <sup>10</sup>Newstetter, op. cit., p. 8.

<sup>11</sup>Kavanagh, op. cit., p. 47.      <sup>12</sup>Thrasher, op. cit., p. 344.

<sup>13</sup>Warner, op. cit., p. 224.      <sup>14</sup>Beaver, op. cit., p. 99.



rural-urban background were studied by Lynn.<sup>1</sup> American Indian youths made up the group studied by M. Smith.<sup>2</sup> Terman's<sup>3</sup> study alone reported Negro children in the population studied. Other studies, however, may have included Negro children, especially those made in schools where integration of races was an established practice.

Some studies of leadership in children and youth focused attention on the influence of socio-economic status on leadership. Out of twenty studies displaying interest in the socio-economic status of leaders and non-leaders, only two produced negligible differences. Goodenough<sup>4</sup> found no reliable difference at the pre-school level between the occupational class of parents of leaders and non-leaders. Baldwin<sup>5</sup> reported negligible difference between high school leaders and non-leaders according to socio-economic conditions. The majority of studies reported that leaders tend to come from a higher socio-economic background, although the difference between the two backgrounds was not extreme. This finding, along with the knowledge that most of these studies based their leadership criteria on office holding, brings to the foreground the question as to the extent to which class bias influenced results. Sociological studies have pointed up the idea that upper-class children tend to get greater recognition and reward, and that the teacher, who usually is of the middle class, frequently fails to understand the goals and patterns of behavior of lower-class children.

<sup>1</sup>Lynn, op. cit., p. 14.      <sup>2</sup>M. Smith, op. cit., p. 418.

<sup>3</sup>Terman, op. cit., p. 427.      <sup>4</sup>Goodenough, op. cit., p. 45.

<sup>5</sup>Baldwin, op. cit., p. 40.



A wide variety of studies disclosed a preponderance of evidence which might indicate that the situational factors bring to the foreground those leadership traits necessary for effective functioning. The following studies help to establish the significance of situational aspects in effective leadership. Terman<sup>1</sup> stated, "In one group a certain pupil feels himself inferior, he follows; in another group the same pupil feels himself superior and he is so regarded by others." Thrasher<sup>2</sup> found that the marks of leadership vary from gang to gang. The type of boy who can lead one gang may be a failure or have a subordinate place in another gang. In studying children with behavior problems, Ackerson<sup>3</sup> found that the leader in one situation may become a follower in another.

In relation to the situational nature of leadership, Mason<sup>4</sup> found a tendency at the fourth grade level for leadership to become centered in a few individuals. Those pupils leading in the classrooms were found to be leaders in activities outside, also. Tryon<sup>5</sup> found trait clusters which characterized the twelve year old leader different from those of the fifteen year old. This was especially true of girls who appear to mature somewhat more rapidly in social interests than do boys. Bellingrath<sup>6</sup> found marked differences in the choice of leaders under varying circumstances.

Data from the Caldwell and Wellman<sup>7</sup> study revealed that the characteristics of the boys and girls chosen by their classmates as representatives in various kinds of school activities varied with the type of activity.

<sup>1</sup>Terman, op. cit., p. 433.      <sup>2</sup>Thrasher, op. cit., p. 344.

<sup>3</sup>Ackerson, op. cit., p. 45.      <sup>4</sup>Mason, op. cit., p. 243.

<sup>5</sup>Tryon, op. cit., pp. 15-18.      <sup>6</sup>Bellingrath, op. cit., p. 433.

<sup>7</sup>Caldwell and Wellman, op. cit., p. 12.



in which the representatives were to engage. Schuler's<sup>1</sup> study indicates that dominant-submissive behavior of boys in a school situation might be very different from that behavior displayed in a home situation. Jennings<sup>2</sup> found that a relatively minor change in either the situation or the habits of a person may cause changes or shifts in choice of leaders. In a study of Indian boy and girl leaders M. Smith<sup>3</sup> stated that the Indian culture influenced slight differences in leadership in boys and girls. Caldwell<sup>4</sup> found that group choices for leaders will vary in terms of the enterprise but the variation will not be wide.

Closely allied to the situational aspects was the time element which showed persistence and/or transferability of leadership. Parten<sup>5</sup> reported changes in leadership during the year of study of pre-school children. This, in part, could have been due to maturation of the children. Woolley<sup>6</sup> found that her subject showed a persistence of dominant traits. Thrasher<sup>7</sup> discovered that no matter how powerful the natural gang leader is, his tenure of power is never certain; change in membership, appearance of a new member, or the leader's own mistakes may cause a change in leadership. Levi<sup>8</sup> found that a carry-over of leadership in school activities from the junior high to the senior high was three times as high as the carry-over from the elementary to the senior high level. This finding

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<sup>1</sup>Schuler, op. cit., p. 430.

<sup>2</sup>Jennings, op. cit., p. 269.

<sup>3</sup>M. Smith, op. cit., p. 421.

<sup>4</sup>Caldwell, op. cit., p. 4.

<sup>5</sup>Parten, op. cit., p. 439.

<sup>6</sup>Woolley, op. cit.

<sup>7</sup>Thrasher, op. cit., p. 355.

<sup>8</sup>Levi, op. cit., p. 137.



might indicate a similarity of activities in the upper levels or less opportunity for leadership at the lower levels. Rummelin<sup>1</sup> found all but 14 per cent of the high school leaders holding office in more than one field. In studies of post school leaders Courtney<sup>2</sup> and Shannon<sup>3</sup> suggest that whatever is required to excel in extra-curricular life of high school seems to be the same thing that contributes most to successful post school leadership. Clem and Dodge<sup>4</sup> in a similar study on post school leadership found that high school non-leaders rated higher than leaders in the post school activities. These findings might suggest that while leadership in high school activities is somewhat predictive of later success, the extent to which leadership persists or transfers is not clearly defined.

In many of the leadership studies the social groups seemed to have unrestricted freedom. Others operated in highly controlled experimental situations. Some groups were found to be very simple and involved no more than loosely coordinated behavior of two or three individuals, while others were found to be larger and operating in more formalized action patterns. One fact predominates that no matter how large, how simple, or how short lived the social groups were, they influenced the needs, beliefs, attitudes, and actions of the individuals comprising the total social group. Thus, in turn, the structure of that group was determined by the interaction among the group members. In terms of planning for leadership training the various factors involved in social groupings become problems of great importance.

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<sup>1</sup>Rummelin, op. cit.

<sup>2</sup>Courtney, op. cit.

<sup>3</sup>Shannon, op. cit.

<sup>4</sup>Clem and Dodge, op. cit.



### Summary

This chapter has presented an analysis and synthesis of the leadership literature on children and youth. The areas examined were (1) general distribution of leadership studies, (2) the methodologies used for investigation, (3) traits and characteristics investigated, and (4) situational and environmental aspects of the studies.

The general distribution of research revealed a scattered pattern of leadership studies on children and youth from 1904 to 1954. The majority of these studies, 93 per cent, were made between 1920 and 1943. It was found that the highest frequency of leadership studies occurred during years of national or economic crises when thoughts were turned toward the need of leadership in this country. The fact that only sixty-four experiments were conducted during the fifty year period points up the need for more research in this area.

Research revealed seven different methodologies employed in the leadership studies: observation, choice making, use of case history, tests, questionnaire, interview, and rating scales. While observation was the favored technique at the pre-school level, it was usually used as a supplementary device at the upper age levels. Techniques involving choice making in one form or another were used in 82 per cent of the studies. Case history methods were found to be a successful means for studying leadership in individual cases. Methods involving tests, questionnaires, interviews, and rating scales were usually used in combination with other procedures. The analysis disclosed that some techniques seemed to be more adaptable at one age level than at another. The problems to be solved, the population surveyed, and situational aspects influenced the choice of techniques used.



Those traits most often associated with leadership were selected for analysis. The traits were classified under four headings. They were physical, mental, personal, and social. The physical factors examined were chronological age, height, weight, physique or energy output, and appearance. Factors such as intelligence, scholarship, knowledge, insight, judgment, and communication skills fell under the mental classification, while originality, self-confidence, adaptability, responsibility, initiative, persistence, dominance, extroversion-introversion, and emotional control were among the most frequently mentioned personal factors. The social factors selected for analysis involved social activities and social skills. These were participation, sociability, cooperation, diplomacy, and tact. The wide variance found in the meanings of leadership and the loosely defined terms describing leadership behavior seemed responsible for conflicting results relative to the traits and characteristics necessary for leadership status. While the possession of one or more of the personal traits was no guarantee of a status position, the studies emphasized the fact that the possession of certain qualities which would assist in attaining group goals were highly desirable. Therefore, many of the qualities described by investigators as personal traits have implied interaction with others. In light of this emphasis, attention seemed to be focused on the situational nature of leadership.

The research literature disclosed a preponderance of evidence which might indicate that situational and environmental settings bring to the foreground those leadership traits necessary for effective leadership functioning. The social composition of the groups were characterized by age, sex, school, grade, institution, gang, club, scouts, campers, or special



service groups. These groups fell under two major headings, namely, school and non-school groups. Some groups were found to be very simple ones, involving the interaction of two or three persons, while others were found to be operating in more complex, formalized patterns. No matter how large or small, how simple or short-lived, the social groups were found to influence the needs, beliefs, attitudes, and actions of the individual. The structure of the group seemed to be determined by the interaction of the members.



## CHAPTER V

### RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS FOR LEADERSHIP EDUCATION

One of the basic assumptions underlying a democratic government is the belief that the nation will be more wisely governed if its people have a voice in the selection of their leaders. Our democracy is nearly two hundred years old, yet there is relatively little scientific knowledge about the operation of leadership in a democracy. It seems inevitable in our civilization today that certain persons will grow into positions of responsibility in which they can control or influence thousands of people. The discouraging element is that comparatively little knowledge has been established which would improve the functioning of individuals who are in leadership positions. In the past three decades there has been greater awareness of the significance of this problem and its relationship to education.

The research findings of leadership literature on children and youth offer implications for leadership education which are worthy of serious consideration. In order to plan an effective program the following questions seem pertinent: What are the underlying concepts of leadership? At what age can leadership be identified? What qualities have been found to be associated with leadership? Each of these questions will be examined in light of research findings and discussed with reference to implications for education.



### Trends and Generalizations

The analysis and synthesis of studies on leadership in children and youth have revealed findings from which trends and generalizations have been identified. Those which seem most significant to this problem will be presented in this section.

Underlying Concepts of Leadership Research.—The underlying concepts of leadership have influenced to a great degree the results of the research literature on leadership in children and youth over the last half century. As pointed out previously, research revealed a diversity of viewpoints and reflected changing concepts over this period of time.

The influence of the general concepts of leadership can be seen in a longitudinal view of the studies. Evidences that leadership was a position associated with adulthood have been revealed through a noticeable lack of leadership literature on children and youth until about 1920. The "trait and characteristic" concept of leadership influenced by far the majority of studies on leadership during the period of 1920-1940, while in the latter thirties attention began to focus on the sociological or situational aspects of leadership. Although the more recent trends of thinking have related leadership directly to the group and its goals, there is a paucity of leadership literature in which group interaction is studied on the elementary and high school levels.

Strangely enough, some aspects of group interaction were found in foreign studies as far back as 1930 when Chevaleva-Janovalaia and Sylla<sup>1</sup> observed changes in leadership behavior under varying conditions.

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<sup>1</sup>Chevaleva-Janovalaia and Sylla, op. cit., p. 153.



Toki<sup>1</sup> examined the leader-follower structure among Japanese school children. In 1949 Merei<sup>2</sup> reported a significant study on child leadership with the focus on group interaction. She observed the holding power of the group against new leaders, and found that the leader proved to be weak when confronting a group having its own traditions despite the fact that he was stronger than any one member of the group.

The preponderance of different concepts of leadership behavior held by investigators has proved confusing. In some cases it is questionable whether leadership were really the aspect measured. The lack of clarification of terms appeared to be the greatest weakness of the majority of the studies. A prevailing concept in the studies at the high school level was that office holding constituted leadership. This idea was challenged by Rummelin<sup>3</sup> who offered the solution that the terms leadership and office-holder be divorced and used as two different types of behavior. It is doubtful whether Bellingerath<sup>4</sup> who investigated school office holding held the same concept of leadership as did Partridge<sup>5</sup> who observed leadership behavior among boys in a free camping situation.

Bonney<sup>6</sup> used interchangeably such terms as status, recognition, acceptance, social success and leadership. The term status was used by

<sup>1</sup>Toki, op. cit., p. 543.

<sup>2</sup>Merei, op. cit., p. 26.

<sup>3</sup>Rummelin, op. cit., p. 418.

<sup>4</sup>Bellingerath, op. cit., p. 4.

<sup>5</sup>Partridge, op. cit., p. 5.

<sup>6</sup>Bonney, op. cit., p. 418.



Hunt<sup>1</sup> in referring to leadership position. Bedoian<sup>2</sup> and Newstetter<sup>3</sup> measured leadership behavior through social acceptance. Maller<sup>4</sup> capitalized on the cooperative aspect of leadership; while Hsia<sup>5</sup> spoke in terms of sociability. Hanfmann<sup>6</sup> defined a pattern of dominance in the social structure, while Schuler<sup>7</sup> used a dominance-submissive scale to measure leadership. Pigors<sup>8</sup>, on the other hand, differentiated between leadership and dominance. Chittendon<sup>9</sup> spoke of modified assertive behavior as being cooperative behavior and leadership behavior. McCandless<sup>10</sup> referred to leadership as social acceptability. Anderson<sup>11</sup> thought of leadership as integrative behavior and maintained that integrative behavior included ascendent behavior as measured by Jack<sup>12</sup>, although Jack stated in her study that ascendancy was of an individual nature and did not embrace leadership.

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<sup>1</sup>Hunt, op. cit., p. 418.

<sup>2</sup>Bedoian, op. cit.

<sup>3</sup>Newstetter, op. cit.

<sup>4</sup>Maller, op. cit.

<sup>5</sup>Hsia, op. cit.

<sup>6</sup>Hanfmann, op. cit.

<sup>7</sup>Schuler, op. cit.

<sup>8</sup>Pigors, op. cit.

<sup>9</sup>Chittendon, op. cit.

<sup>10</sup>McCandless, op. cit.

<sup>11</sup>Anderson, Genetic Psychology Monograph, XIX (1937), 435.

<sup>12</sup>Jacks, op. cit., p. 12.



The beliefs about what constitutes leadership have gone through a changing process during the fifty year period. The concept that leadership was vested in one individual who possessed certain traits and characteristics has shifted toward an interest in an exploration of the influence of various situations upon leaders. Many investigators have been stimulated in this direction. More recently the trend has been toward the study of leadership as residing in group interaction where many individuals share the responsibility of moving the group toward its goals. Very few studies on children and youth have used this approach. Much more research is needed of this type in order to provide scientific bases for action.

The fact that there were many conflicting results emphasizes the need for greater precision of terms describing leadership behavior. It has been previously pointed out that there was diversity of opinions among investigators. There is doubt, therefore, that all of the studies were concerned with the phenomenon of leadership in the same way. Some of them may have been investigating related but not crucial aspects. In part, some of the difficulty might be a problem of semantics. Nevertheless, it is difficult to draw generalizations when terminology is ambiguous.

Early Manifestations of Leadership.—A question which has occupied the interest of many investigators has been, at what age can leadership be identified? Evidence has been found by Buhler<sup>1</sup> that as early as in the first year of life leadership potentials can be identified. Her description of this early manifestation of leadership is that

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<sup>1</sup>Buhler, op. cit., p. 400



"the child in no way loses his balance in the presence of another infant whom he consoles when weeping, and he leads in imitation." She further found that in the second year children begin to form groups of two and sometimes three, but were only in groups of three when mixed sexes appeared. Woolley<sup>1</sup> in a study of a three year old pointed out that leadership potentials were readily recognized by the staff members. Beaver<sup>2</sup> identified in the same age group leader-follower interaction which was associated with group behavior. The appearance of leadership behavior in the early years was found to be short lived, infrequent, and usually confined to two or three members. Chevaleva-Janavskaia<sup>3</sup> agreed with this finding relative to the number and duration of the group. Strong evidence that children of five or six years are able and eager to participate in group life is found in studies by Parten,<sup>4</sup> Hanfmann,<sup>5</sup> Goodenough,<sup>6</sup> Anderson,<sup>7</sup> and Chittendon.<sup>8</sup> The "bully" and the "diplomat" found by Parten,<sup>9</sup> and Hanfmann's<sup>10</sup> "aggressive" and "social" leaders indicate that types of leadership were identifiable at an early age.

<sup>1</sup>Woolley, op. cit., p. 570.

<sup>2</sup>Beaver, op. cit., p. 99.

<sup>3</sup>Chevaleva-Janavskaia, op. cit., p. 661.

<sup>4</sup>Parten, op. cit.

<sup>5</sup>Hanfmann, op. cit.

<sup>6</sup>Goodenough, op. cit.

<sup>7</sup>Anderson, op. cit.

<sup>8</sup>Chittendon, op. cit.

<sup>9</sup>Parten, op. cit., p. 430.

<sup>10</sup>Hanfmann, op. cit., p. 410.



However, Pigors<sup>1</sup> differentiated between dominative behavior and leadership behavior and indicates that until the individual is able to recognize social standards involving fairness, honesty, and loyalty, and has developed an awareness of others as personalities real leadership cannot take place. Marcia<sup>2</sup> stated that there can be no leadership before the age of five and that it is not clearly defined until after nine years. Numerous studies have suggested that from about the age of nine on the class assumes a groupness within which each child recognizes his place in the total structure, but the power of his leadership penetration depends upon his ability to supply the group needs. Terman<sup>3</sup> found leadership in the early years to be of least permanent nature. Merei<sup>4</sup> in a study of nursery children found that the strength and direction of leadership was controlled by the "traditions" and the degree of "cohesion" of the group, while Toki<sup>5</sup> observed at the elementary level that the leadership role was central to the maintenance of the group.

Research revealed that the age in which leadership appears is debatable. Evidence of leadership behavior depends upon the frame of reference. Investigators who thought of leadership in terms of simple overt and verbal expressions have reported having observed leadership

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<sup>1</sup>Pigors, op. cit., p. 171.

<sup>2</sup>Marcia, op. cit., p. 450.

<sup>3</sup>Terman, op. cit., p. 436.

<sup>4</sup>Merei, op. cit., p. 34.

<sup>5</sup>Toki, op. cit., p. 543.



behavior in children at much earlier ages than did those who spoke of leadership in more complicated patterns of social behavior. The pre-school studies indicated that the children were participating in social behavior which was defined as leadership. Other studies have indicated that leadership is not clearly defined until about the age of nine when children seem to become more aware of membership in groups. In all probability, this is a developmental problem which expands and increases in complexity with maturity.

Leadership has been described as simple actions involving two or three individuals and also as more complicated patterns of initiating, directing and influencing the action of larger groups. One significant fact pointed up in all studies, however, is that leadership is an aspect of social behavior. From the beginning of the formation of a group some of the individuals are found to take a more active role than others, to be preferred by other members and to rise into a higher status. This interaction or role assuming procedure within a group is the beginning of leadership differentiation and has been observed in groups from early childhood on through later life.

Qualities Associated With Leadership.— An analysis of the choices made by children and youth furnished information regarding those qualities they valued in leadership behavior. Goodenough<sup>1</sup> found pre-school children unaffected by the personal appearance of leaders, while Bonney's<sup>2</sup> second graders gave evidence of more interest in personal appearance of leaders.

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<sup>1</sup>Goodenough, op. cit., p. 32.

<sup>2</sup>Bonney, Journal of Genetic Psychology, IX (1942), 291.



The Detroit Teachers Study<sup>1</sup> found that while the physical appearance held value with elementary children, the highest percent of choices were made in terms of ideal and social values. Partridge<sup>2</sup> found a high value placed on appearance as being necessary for leadership. Tryon<sup>3</sup> reports that appearance is more closely associated with leaders in boys than in girls at both twelve and fifteen years of age. She found that the fifteen year old girl and boy valued popularity more than the twelve year old boy and girl. Nutting<sup>4</sup> found junior high girls preferred a leader who was sturdy, well-built, and more mature than those she directed. Thrasher<sup>5</sup> found evidence that physical prowess was admired in leaders of boys gangs.

Bonney<sup>6</sup> reported that general academic competence was valued in leaders at the second grade level, while Eckert<sup>7</sup> found that this value greatly decreased from the seventh grade level to the twelfth grade level. The majority of investigators seem to be in agreement about the finding that scholarship is desirable but is not essential to leadership.

<sup>1</sup>Detroit Teachers Study, op. cit., p. 15.

<sup>2</sup>Partridge, op. cit., p. 64.

<sup>3</sup>Tryon, op. cit., pp. 15-18.

<sup>4</sup>Nutting, op. cit., p. 390.

<sup>5</sup>Thrasher, op. cit., p. 347.

<sup>6</sup>Bonney, Journal of Genetic Psychology, IX (1942), p. 291.

<sup>7</sup>Eckert, op. cit., p. 23.



Many studies revealed differences in opinions held by adults and children and youth regarding desirable traits of leadership. Notable among them is the study by Fauquier and Gilchrist<sup>1</sup> which showed a decided discrepancy between adult choices and boys' choices of leaders. Their study suggests that the morale of the group and its control rests with the socially accepted leader whom adults frequently do not recognize. Fleming<sup>2</sup> found a difference of thirty points in teachers' and girls' ratings of the relationship between leadership and personality. This finding suggests that some traits valued by adults received a lower evaluation by the girls. Anderson<sup>3</sup> found that teachers were better able to judge dominative than integrative behavior. He felt that this might be attributed to the fact that teachers were more alert to dominant or aggressive behavior, whereas cooperative behavior passed by unnoticed. Pinard<sup>4</sup> found that those subjects classified as extreme perseverators were always in conflict with adult authority. Even though the extreme perseverator was a leader, the adult classified the moderate perseverator as the best leader. This judgment by the adult might be influenced by a moralistic view or by the ability of the moderate perseverator to submit to adult authority. Wetzel<sup>5</sup> found differences of opinion between adults and adolescents on the trait of self-control. Adolescents, however,

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<sup>1</sup>Fauquier and Gilchrist, op. cit., p. 57.

<sup>2</sup>Fleming, op. cit., p. 598.

<sup>3</sup>Anderson, Genetic Psychology Monograph, XIX (1937), p. 355.

<sup>4</sup>Pinard, op. cit., p. 17.

<sup>5</sup>Wetzel, op. cit., p. 534.



did not feel that self-control was a valued trait of leadership. This might be attributed to the norms of an adolescent group or it might be a difference in the situations under which self-control was observed. Through an analysis it has been found that children have attached higher values to some of the qualities of leadership than to others. This variance in value judgments has not only been found to be operating at different age levels, but also between the sexes. The importance of this process of changing values with increasing age is brought sharply into focus by the evidence of the wide difference, in some instances, between the values held by adults and children and youth. It has been suggested that this conflict of opinions is deeply rooted in developmental processes.

Although the physical, mental, personal, and social aspects of leadership have been analyzed in Chapter IV, it seems pertinent to review these findings in the light of trends and generalizations about leadership which they might suggest. Research has pointed out some significant qualities believed to be associated with the functioning of leadership. Although study of the traits and characteristics associated with leadership has yielded somewhat contradictory evidence, the frequency with which certain qualities appear in research findings warrants examination.

Chronological age, weight, and height seemed not to be single factors influencing leadership, but were found to influence leadership status under certain situational demands. The situations in schools in which these qualities are apt to be significant should not be minimized. On the whole, the studies gave more positive evidence that



physical condition or energy and appearance were influential in the choice of leadership. This evidence appeared in research literature at all age levels examined. A general assumption would seem to be that leadership can best be fulfilled by individuals who possess energy and physical strength which will meet the demands of the situation. Orderliness in appearance and personal habits would also seem to be an asset to one in status position.

Research disclosed the relative importance of homogeneity of intelligence of the group. In general, the leader tends to be a little more intelligent than the group he leads but not too much. The indications were that relationship between intelligence and leadership were too low to place confidence in the fact that intelligence as a factor in itself might insure leadership. This seemed to indicate that intelligence might be associated with other characteristics which contribute to a person's ability to function as a leader. Studies indicated that children and youth tend to seek companions of their own mental ability. In no place was it stressed that only the highly intelligent should be educated for leadership. On the contrary, evidence disclosed the fact that the process of leadership was found to be functioning among groups of children and youth who possessed superior, average, or below average intelligence. Evidence indicated also that many pupils who possessed high intelligence had never held positions of leadership.

Examinations of leadership literature revealed conflicting opinions as to the relationship between scholarship and leadership. However, it is through the conflicting evidence that certain generalizations appear. It was found that at the elementary level greater



value was placed upon reading than at the junior high and senior high levels. Society seems to place a higher value on reading in the lower elementary grades than at any other grades. It must be remembered, also, that some research was conducted in school situations where the curriculum stressed scholarship values. Another generalization seemed to lie in the fact that as age increases the individual has diversified experiences which offer opportunities for the rise of leadership. Scholarship and intelligence account for only a part of the composite required for leadership.

The qualities which appeared to be basic to all effective leadership were presented in the classification of communication skills. Although the ability to communicate involves personal traits and characteristics, it can only be exercised between or among individuals. The type of communication varied with age groups and with situations. More overt patterns of communication were found among the younger children, while verbal communication came with the gaining of vocal and language skills. The ability to express ideas, feelings and desires of the group were stressed in research findings. The process of communication seems to be basic to the effective functioning of a group, and, therefore, has a significant influence on leadership behavior.

There seemed to be general agreement among the findings of the investigators that certain personal factors contributed to the successful functioning of leadership. Among those qualities were originality, self-confidence, adaptability, responsibility, initiative, persistence, ambition and emotional control. While some of these qualities seemed to be of a personal nature, many seemed to contain some of the social



components of interaction with a group. It has been pointed out previously that the mere possession of one or more of these qualities would not insure leadership, but that the possession of such qualities were desirable for leadership. The need of certain qualities under certain conditions emphasized the situational aspects of leadership. The trend away from concentrated attention on personal traits toward a more dynamic approach seemed to be characterized by the investigation of qualities which inferred interaction.

The social factors analyzed in Chapter IV involved social activities and social skills. Participation, sociability, cooperation, diplomacy and tact were the qualities most of the investigators agreed were important to leadership. One of the highest correlations was found between participation and leadership. Evidence on all age levels revealed social expansiveness through participation in various activities. It was pointed out that as the individual progresses in school more and more opportunities are available for him to interact with groups. A majority of studies at the junior and senior high levels based their criteria for measuring leadership on participation or office holding in extra-curricula activities. Research indicates that it is doubtful whether mere office-holding constitutes the same type of leadership as investigated in other studies. The qualities sociability, cooperation, diplomacy and tact appeared to involve activities of an interacting nature. They are qualities necessary for effective human relationships. Studies revealed that leaders seem to possess some amount of prestige and popularity in being able to supply means or aid otherwise unavailable to the followers. Leaders of gangs were able to present boys with patterns of behavior, while some school leaders gained prestige through their



ability to initiate activities and keep them moving toward group goals. It was found that many studies associated prestige and popularity with leadership. While these two qualities may be associated with leadership, they are not necessarily determinants of it.

### Implications for Educational Programs

The value attached to leadership education in our public schools depends upon the purposes of our educational program and upon the degree to which the needs of the democratic society are considered in determining educational objectives. Any program or philosophy which proposes to develop more adequate methods of dealing with a social phenomenon such as leadership will promote experiences by which pupils learn to deal cooperatively and constructively with a variety of social experiences. Since leadership is essentially social, education for leadership must be a part of a program based on the social objectives of a democratic society.

The school is not the only agency of society in which leadership education takes place. There must be opportunities, informal and organized, in each community for boys and girls to participate in meaningful ways. Many studies have shown that activities of a non-school type have afforded excellent situations which have given rise to the leadership in children. Sometimes these opportunities, however, are somewhat limited to children and youth of certain socio-economic classes. Careful planning should be done at the community level to broaden the base of participation so that all children can have opportunities for self-realization.



The school, however, as the agency of society whose primary function concerns the education of youth, must assume a major responsibility along this line. It is imperative, therefore, that the curriculum be continuously re-examined in light of significant purposes of a changing society. While some studies have shown that certain desirable opportunities are being provided in our schools, others have found them quite limited. Practice must be brought more in line with present knowledge and theory in order to meet the needs of society.

Studies showing what has been accomplished in leadership training programs offer some clues for the implementation of such programs in our present educational system. Chittendon<sup>1</sup> found evidence that nursery children trained in leadership behavior showed an increase in cooperative traits. Woolley,<sup>2</sup> in another study at the pre-school level, found that the characteristic of domination became modified under the influence of a school training program. Van Waters<sup>3</sup> and S. Brown<sup>4</sup> in studies of delinquent girl leaders urge that better training in school be given to direct the leadership energy of delinquents into socially acceptable channels. McGahan<sup>5</sup> found positive results from a special program to stimulate a better understanding of leadership and leadership

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<sup>1</sup>Chittendon, op. cit., p. 74.

<sup>2</sup>Woolley, op. cit., p. 18.

<sup>3</sup>Van Waters, op. cit.

<sup>4</sup>S. Brown, op. cit.

<sup>5</sup>McGahan, op. cit., p. 38.



status. Miller and Dollard<sup>1</sup> stressed the learning of leadership through imitation. Maller<sup>2</sup> found that lack of practice in group activities in which the child works with his fellows for a common goal precludes the formation of habits of cooperation which is basic to the rise of leadership.

Some studies have stressed the idea that leadership training should include all children and youth, not a selected few. This idea is supported by Kavanagh<sup>3</sup> in finding non-leaders excelling in traits of interest, attitudes, and preferences. Reynolds<sup>4</sup> found that a substantial proportion of non-leaders ranked moderately high on some of the leadership traits, thus emphasizing the fact that all individuals can assume leadership within certain limitations. He recommends that a supervisory staff in high school act as a clearing house in setting up a unified plan to train leaders and potential leaders. Studies by Courtney,<sup>5</sup> Shannon,<sup>6</sup> and Clem and Dodge,<sup>7</sup> on the carry-over of leadership into post-school activities help emphasize the need for better leadership programs in our schools. Caldwell and Wellman<sup>8</sup> stated that those qualities which seem to be essential should receive more attention in our educational programs. Some of these are: initiative, originality, trustworthiness, responsibility,

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<sup>1</sup>Miller and Dollard, op. cit.

<sup>2</sup>Maller, op. cit., p. 163.

<sup>3</sup>Kavanagh, op. cit., p. 87.

<sup>4</sup>Reynolds, op. cit., p. 360.

<sup>5</sup>Courtney, op. cit.

<sup>6</sup>Shannon, op. cit.

<sup>7</sup>Clem and Dodge, op. cit.

<sup>8</sup>Caldwell and Wellman, op. cit., p. 11.



cooperation, and respect for others. Eichler<sup>1</sup> and Eckert<sup>2</sup> disclose evidence that leadership qualities can be improved by direct instruction at the high school level. While direct instruction in leadership might have yielded successful results to a certain degree, it does not seem to be the solution in terms of the present philosophy of a democratic nation and the objectives of the educational programs.

No doubt much leadership training goes on in our educational programs which is unnoticed and unheralded. It stands to reason that every opportunity in which boys and girls are allowed to participate in activities which they have helped plan is in a measure training for leadership. The challenge facing the schools now is to organize a program in which to develop the leadership potentials of each pupil.

While the school structure is not ideally set up for complete freedom in grouping, it has many characteristics which might be used effectively in the implementation of leadership programs. One of the strong points is that it offers opportunity for group living. The interaction in group living can take place in the form of planning, discussing and sharing ideas and skills. Extra-curricular activities have long been viewed as opportunities for leadership experiences. The idea of extending these opportunities however, into group situations in the classroom has been slow in developing. The latter form of group living is viewed as more favorable in that it offers greater opportunities for interaction and the development of all individuals, while the former focused attention

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<sup>1</sup>Eichler, op. cit.

<sup>2</sup>Eckert, op. cit.



on the office holding aspects of leadership which provided for the few.

Since learning is a unified experience, the situations and opportunities for leadership learning must be selected in terms of the maturity and past experiences of the learner. These learning opportunities must take into consideration the need for balance between individual-centered and group-centered activities. The trend of former years has been overemphasizing individual-centered activity. This approach is limited in that it does not provide adequate opportunity for relating to other people nor for developing skills essential for group participation. The latter have been repeatedly emphasized in the literature as requisite for leader-follower relationship. Another aspect of balance in a program has to do with tension-releasing activities which seem to set the tempo for the emotional atmosphere of the classroom. Evidences from many disciplines stress the idea that emotional atmosphere must be free from undue pressures, strains, and unpleasantness. Pupils feel more secure in a classroom in which they can work in harmony with others, and at their individual rates. An emotional atmosphere in which pupils have freedom to express their feelings, attitudes, and ideas with other group members gives them opportunities for the recognition of various types of contributions. The approval of their peers gives them a feeling of acceptance of self and of others. They learn to appreciate the efforts of others through classroom climates which acknowledge each individual's worth.

Learning-situations in which the pupils are able to see the real meaning is a most significant aspect in curriculum planning. It is obvious that experiences will be more valuable if they are meaningful. They should be of such a nature that they will stimulate the



pupils to see wider relationships and to be able to understand their motives and those of others. These experiences must also stimulate the group to evaluate their efforts in light of their goals. The evaluation process is an important part of making decisions. It helps the individuals of the group clarify purposes and make judgments as a basis for more intelligent choices and planning. The evaluation process is continuous, for it requires appraisal of pupil performance at various stages of work. By this process, it will be possible to tell the progress at successive stages of the program. Lack of continuous growth may mean wasted resources. By continuous evaluation it can be determined when an activity is unprofitable or needs a change.

In an effective education program every one involved in the situation should be a part of the evaluation process as well as a part in the selection of criteria by which it will be evaluated. The evaluation process should include defining goals, collecting and recording evidence, making judgments and revising plans and procedures. This process is viewed as a means for helping the individual or group to control and improve their environment.

The interest of the individual must not be lost in the overall program of group planning. Although it is assumed that favorable group living contributes to the development of the individual, there must be an awareness of the personal needs of children and youth and a deeper knowledge of ways to relate these needs to a group living. The need for success and the need for adequacy are examples of some of the personal needs which must be provided for in leadership programs. An understanding of these needs and of group dynamics should give teachers



and those persons working with children and youth deeper insight into group situations, thereby increasing opportunities for providing for the individual needs of the pupils.

In many programs there still prevails the idea that learning is the acquisition of certain prescribed bodies of knowledge and skills. Some people, however, view learning as a process of adjusting successfully to situations at each stage of development. It is being realized more and more that the group processes employed and the group climate achieved are the factors which will determine the goals reached. There must be a deepened understanding of how groups react in order to foster the right kind of learning. More and more teachers are becoming aware of their responsibility to help pupils acquire the social skills needed for adaptation to group membership. These social skills, however, cannot be learned in isolation. They are gained only through guided experiences in social interaction. An educational program which provides for the processes necessary for developing social skills will have provided for effective teaching and learning. It is through the process of interacting that creativity of an individual may be released and fostered. Sometimes attaining favorable group living may be a creative expression. It is as the individual works with the group in planning and carrying these plans to completion that group interaction is found to be a major factor in developing rather than submerging the individual. The fact that leadership is identifiable at an early age offers a basis for encouraging the development of leadership at each age level.

One of the most significant implications for a leadership education program concerns the development of communication skills as



revealed by research literature. Gaining a capacity for ready communication depends directly upon the learning experiences offered in the program. These skills cannot be taught in isolation. They can be acquired through the actual process of communicating with the members of the group. A leader must be able to express his ideas and those of the group in terms which will be understood by all members of the group. Communication may be carried on through verbal or overt manifestations. Regardless of the ways in which ideas and feelings are transmitted the fact remains that the participants must be able to understand. It is not enough for the line of communication to be clear between the leader and each individual member of the group. Communication among all members of the group is necessary for the effective achievement of group goals. One implication stands out clearly in this respect. The leader must be capable of releasing potentials within the group in order for the interaction to include all members. The teacher's responsibility in the classroom for fostering the development of these skills cannot be minimized. A knowledge of the individuals in the group will aid the teacher in setting up situations which will help children feel free to communicate with the members of the group. As members analyze their behavior and examine their ways of working together, they gain increasing skill in sharing leadership functions.

Evidence that children and youth choose leaders who possess physical energy and strength would seem to offer an implication for a leadership program. It points up the fact that health is basic to the ability to carry on leadership responsibilities effectively. Health has long been one of the objectives in the educational program and a great deal has been accomplished to raise the health standards of



the children and youth of the schools. However, the fact remains that a program fostering leadership must be enlarged to include not only the physical, but the mental aspects of health as well.

The need for more emphasis on mental health comes from many sources. Research pointed up the fact that delinquents and pupils with behavior problems do exercise leadership ability. However, the goals toward which they lead are not always socially acceptable. A program which stresses the examination of values and development of sensitivity and responsibility seems significant. Only as these experiences take place within a democratic framework and are based upon sound democratic values will human resources be utilized in a profitable way.

#### Summary

Some pertinent trends and generalizations identified in the research literature on children and youth have been presented in this chapter. Implications for school programs have been drawn from these.

The underlying concepts of leadership were examined. A longitudinal view of the influence of the general concepts was presented. While most of the research studies focused attention on the "trait and Characteristic" concept, a few approached leadership from the sociological viewpoint. The great diversity of opinions regarding leadership behavior among investigators pointed up the need for the clarification of terms.

Studies were examined from the viewpoint of manifestation of leadership at different age levels. It was found that leadership could be identified at very early ages, but that varying definitions of leadership influenced the results found at the different age levels. It was indicated by some investigators that leadership is not clearly defined



until about the age of nine when children seem to become more aware of membership in a group.

Qualities identified with leadership by children and adults were described. Those qualities that appeared to be pertinent were also pointed out and discussed. Finally, aspects of a good education program which would seem to hold promise for fostering the development of democratic leadership were examined.



## CHAPTER VI

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND PROBLEMS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

#### Summary and Conclusions

The problem for this study was to analyze and synthesize research on leadership in children and youth from the pre-school level up to and including the high school level for a period of fifty years, from 1904 through 1954. The areas from which the research literature was selected were education, psychology, and sociology. The survey was based upon leadership studies made in the American culture. A few selected foreign studies, however, were presented for comparative and supportive purposes.

Preliminary reviews of the studies were presented according to four major classifications comparable to age level groupings: pre-school, elementary, junior high and senior high levels. Within each classification the studies were presented in chronological order according to date of publication. The reviews contained data relative to investigators, problems, social compositions of the samples, techniques, and results.

Analysis of the data was made in terms of distribution of the studies, methodologies used, traits and characteristics associated with leadership, and environmental aspects influencing leadership. It was found that there were sixty-four investigations of leadership in children and youth from 1904 through 1954 which met the criteria for inclusion in this study. The general distribution showed a scattered pattern over the



years. Prior to 1920 there had been only one study on leadership in children and youth. Twenty-six of the years yielded leadership studies, while twenty-five had no studies credited to them. The highest number of investigations occurred between 1933 and 1942. The majority of the studies, 93 per cent, fell between 1920 and 1943, while the period between 1930 and 1940 yielded  $47\frac{1}{2}$  per cent of the total number of studies. The changing cultural and technological aspects of a democratic society seemed to be sources influencing the interest in leadership during certain years.

It was found that the methods used in research of leadership in children and youth could be classified under seven general headings: observation, choice-making, use of case history, tests, questionnaires, interviews, and rating scales. Observation was found to be an effective technique at all age levels. Its practicability at the nursery level was evident in the exclusive use of this method in all nine pre-school studies. The scant use of this method on the upper age levels would seem to raise questions as to the reason. Choice-making, which involved naming, electing, ranking, and nominating, was used in 83 per cent of the studies. It was further found that some methods were more suitable for one type of investigation than for another. For example, the case history method appeared successful in revealing pertinent data on atypical behavior as exhibited by mental defectives, children with behavior problems, delinquents, and members of certain gangs. Methods involving tests, interviews, questionnaires, and rating scales were usually found in combination. Generally speaking, the problem to be solved, the social composition of the sample, and the situational factors involved determined the techniques best suited to a particular investigation.



A synthesis of the data revealed traits and characteristics found to be associated with leadership in children and youth. It was discovered that a majority of studies on leadership confined their examinations to certain physical, mental, personal, and social characteristics possessed by pupils occupying positions of leadership. Fewer studies focused attention on situational aspects and on interaction or group dynamics. Only the most significant factors from the physical, mental, personal, and social areas were presented in the synthesis of data.

The physical factors pointed up were chronological age, height, weight, physique or energy output, and appearance. There was somewhat contradictory evidence on these points. In general, however, the indications were that chronological age, height, and weight seemed not to be single factors influencing leadership, but might influence status under certain situational demands. The studies were more closely in agreement that physical energy and appearance were necessary for effective leadership.

The mental factors studied included intelligence, scholarship, knowledge, insight, judgment, and communication skills. The research indicated that a leader tends to be a little more intelligent than the group he leads, but does not deviate too far in either direction. Studies on the elementary level found leaders to be better than average in their scholastic work. This evidence was borne out in the majority of the high school studies also. Other evidence, however, emphasized the fact that many pupils having high intellectual capacities and scholastic ratings have never occupied positions of leadership. This finding seemed to



suggest that intelligence and scholarship account for only a part of the composite required for leadership status. Knowledge, judgment, and insight seemed to be a part of the general intelligence displayed in leadership activities. Communication was found to be basic to all effective leadership, and the capacity for ready communication is one of the significant skills associated with leadership. A leader must be able to express the ideas, desires, and feeling of the group he leads. He must also be able to foster communication among the group members. Communication is the medium through which interaction of a group takes place. Evidence of the powers of communication in leadership activities was found at all age levels.

A variety of terms was used to describe the personal factors associated with leadership. Those selected for examination were: originality, self-confidence, adaptability, responsibility, initiative, persistence, ambition, dominance, extroversion-introversion, and emotional control. The traits which seemed to be more of a personal nature were originality and self-confidence, while many of the others appeared to contain some of the components of interaction with the group. Although most investigators were in agreement that self-confidence was associated with leadership, one study found that this quality did not differentiate between leaders and non-leaders. The ability to adjust to new situations seemed to be a quality needed for effective leadership. A sense of responsibility was also important. Since responsibility implies concern for something or someone, however, it would seem to depend upon situational aspects as much as upon any personal trait. Initiative, persistence, and ambition were reported by many investigators as significant to leadership. The relationship of leadership to dominance, extroversion-introversion,



and emotional control brought diverse opinions from investigators. The lack of agreement on the meaning of dominance seemed to result in controversial findings. It was also found that extroversion-introversion could not be described with any degree of uniformity. Emotional control was found to be directly related to situational factors and to the values held by different age groups.

Social factors involved social activities and social skills, namely, participation, sociability, cooperation, diplomacy, and tact. Participation was one trait which some investigators found to have a high correlation with leadership. Some form of participation seems basic to interaction. Sociability, cooperation, and tact have been listed as social skills necessary for leadership.

Research literature revealed evidence which might indicate that the situational and environmental settings bring to the foreground those qualities necessary for effective leadership. Leadership was investigated in many kinds of situations. These studies were grouped into two major divisions: school and non-school types. The age, sex, and kind of activity were influential factors in giving rise to leadership. Some of the groups were found to be very simple ones involving the interaction of two or three persons, while the interaction of others was found to be of a more complex and formalized nature.

The underlying concepts of leadership influence to a great extent the results of research literature. There appeared to be a decided trend from the early concept of leadership as dependent upon personal traits and characteristics toward an interaction approach which relates leadership directly to the group and its goals. There was a paucity of research



using the interaction approach to the study of leadership. More research of this type is needed in order to provide scientific bases for action.

Evidence indicated that leadership can be identified at an early age, but the definition of what constitutes leadership differed with investigators. There seemed to be general agreement that children of five or six years of age were able to participate in group life. Some investigators, however, felt that leadership behavior could not be clearly identified before the age of nine. From the beginning of the formation of a group some individuals were found to take more active roles than others, to be preferred by the other members and to rise to higher status. This interaction or role assuming procedure within a group seems to be the beginning of leadership differentiation and has been observed in groups from early childhood through later years.

Boys and girls were not always in agreement on the qualities they considered important for leadership functioning. Differences in values attached to leadership were also found between different age groups as well as between the sexes. The conflict between adult opinions and those of children and youth about the importance of certain leadership qualities might be deeply rooted in developmental processes.

The research findings indicated that the ability to initiate an activity and help a group move toward its goals is necessary for leadership behavior on any age level. The fact was emphasized that the possession of certain traits or qualities may not guarantee a status position, but the qualities enumerated seemed to be highly desirable. No matter how large or small, how simple or complex, the social groups were found to influence the needs, beliefs, attitudes, and actions of the individual.



Data from research studies on leadership and those related areas yielded important implications for educational programs. Leadership is not acquired by mere possession of traits, but is given by the group to the individual who is respected and is perceived as having those qualities necessary to help achieve goals. A leadership program in a democracy must focus attention on the growth and development of the members of the group rather than on the selection of a few individuals for leadership training. Leadership education, accordingly, should include all children and youth.

There should be planning at the local level to provide more opportunities for group living. Communities have a heavy responsibility in fulfilling these needs. Research revealed that the non-school type of activities afforded rich opportunities for fostering leadership potentials. Since the school, however, has the designated function of providing educational opportunities for children and youth of a democracy, a major concern seems to become centered in the area of human relationships. There must be an extension of opportunities for interaction in more phases of our school life. The school structure offers opportunity for group living where interaction can take place in the form of planning, discussion, and sharing of ideas and skills. Leadership behavior should become diffused in the total educational program. In accomplishing this objective the emotional climate of the classroom and the school becomes highly significant.

From a careful examination of the research on leadership in children and youth, certain weaknesses, confusions, and gaps were noticeable. It



would seem important that these be corrected in order to give direction for future educational planning. In light of this, the following conclusions and recommendations seem warranted:

1. An over-all weakness lies in the fact that only sixty-four studies were concerned with leadership in children and youth in a fifty year period in which a preponderance of research was devoted to child growth and development. This appears to be an insufficient number in view of the importance of the subject.
2. No social grouping had more than three studies. This appears to be far too few for any degree of reliability to be established.
3. More research is needed using an interaction approach to the study of leadership.
4. Precision of terms is greatly needed. Terms referring to leadership and those describing certain traits, characteristics, and situations should be clearly and consistently defined.
5. More investigation is needed in each grade level and age grouping.
6. New techniques of investigation should be developed for examining interaction in group situations.
7. Studies should be made of changes that take place with increasing maturity relative to values and attitudes toward leadership.
8. More studies should be made on the interaction of pre-adolescents, since the significance of their gang activities has been repeatedly emphasized.



### Problems for Future Research

Some of the conclusions have indicated many types of problems which need further study. A few of the more pertinent ones might be formulated as follows:

1. To what extent are our schools meeting the problems of leadership education?
2. To what extent does class bias operate in our schools in relation to the choice of leaders?
3. To what extent are the norms of a group of pre-adolescents affected by a new leader?
4. Under what conditions does leadership become a function shared by various members of children's groups?
5. What are the significant factors influencing perceptions of roles assumed in group situations?



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#### BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Cornelia M. Lancaster was born in Kissimmee, Florida, on October 4, 1901. She completed the elementary and high school levels in the Osceola County Public Schools. Her undergraduate training was received at Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland, and at the University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida. She received her musical education at Peabody Conservatory of Music, Baltimore, Maryland, and at Rollins Conservatory of Music, Winter Park, Florida. Both the Bachelor of Arts Degree and the Master's Degree were received at the University of Florida. She is a member of Kappa Delta Pi, an honorary educational society. She was a classroom teacher in the elementary schools of Osceola County for a number of years before becoming music supervisor in the Orange County Public Schools. She is presently employed as principal of a school for exceptional education in Orlando, Florida.



This dissertation was prepared under the direction of the chairman of the candidate's supervisory committee and has been approved by all members of the committee. It was submitted to the Dean of the College of Education and to the Graduate Council and was approved as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

January, 1956.

J. B. White  
Dean, College of Education

\_\_\_\_\_  
Dean, Graduate School

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